

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 27, 1882.

The Week.

MR. CHARLES DARWIN, who has just passed away full of years and honor, is probably the man who has done most to make the nineteenth century famous, full as it has been of wonders, because he has done more than any other man since Copernicus to change the ideas of the civilized world touching man's relations to the physical universe. Copernicus and Kepler may be said to have closed the mediæval epoch, and fatally shaken the authority of the Church in the domain of natural philosophy, but then they never reached the popular mind, and produced but little rearrangement of ideas outside the scientific world. Moreover, the doctrine of evolution as an explanation of the earth and the heavenly bodies as we now see them, had made its appearance long before Darwin's day, without producing much impression on morals, or theology, or politics. It was Darwin's application of it to the explanation of the animal world, as we now see it, which made it a really great force in human affairs—a force which, though it may be said to have been felt for but little more than twenty-five years, has already profoundly affected the modern way of looking at nearly all social problems. It is safe to say that there is hardly any sphere of human activity in which the influence of his ideas is not felt in a greater or less degree, and it bids fair to grow with an accelerated ratio. The hostility with which they were at first received by the Church has already greatly abated, and probably the best educated and most influential portion of the clergy of all denominations now allow them to govern their expositions of man's relation to the unseen as well as the seen universe, and are at least content with his explanation of the process through which the race became self-conscious and moral.

It is impossible to enumerate here all the ways in which his influence has stimulated or controlled sociological investigation and legislation. Its more obvious effects are to be seen in the great impetus given within the last quarter of a century to inquiry into the mental and physical condition of the savages, and in the greatly increased popular interest in comparative anatomy and comparative politics. Such books as the late Mr. Bagehot's account of "nation making," in which the Darwinian process of "natural selection" is applied to the origin and growth of political societies, are undoubtedly due to Mr. Darwin's suggestion. To the same agency we must ascribe the great stimulus given of late in legislation to the improvement of surroundings as a means of improving human character. No more serious blow was ever given to the ancient plan of reforming mankind by simple rewards and punishments, than Darwin gave when he first pointed out the enormous influence, moral as well as physical, of the "environment" on the animal. We now every day see more

and more attention given to bettering the conditions of men's lives as the real means of bettering their lives, and less and less confidence reposed in simple commands addressed to conduct. In fact, there are some signs that this influence is proving too strong, and carrying both law-givers and philanthropists into the dangerous extreme of underrating the power of the human will working against environment. It must be admitted, too, that the application of the theory of natural selection, or, as Herbert Spencer calls it, the "survival of the fittest," to social and political arrangements, useful as it is in giving effort a rational and fruitful direction, has some tendency to repress sympathy for weakness and incapacity. Darwinism, in other words, has done something for Bismarckism. It gives might a new title to the possession of the earth, and makes "the wall" seem more than ever the proper destination of the incapable, the inconsequent, the feeble, and the sickly. That the race will be the better eventually for this immense revelation (for such it certainly is) of the way in which, as far as man on earth is concerned,

"—through the ages one unceasing purpose runs," there can be no doubt. But the period of transition from the older view, which provided so large and even honored a place in nature for helplessness, and ignorance, and weakness, is likely to have many dark places in it, in which the most orthodox evolutionists will be puzzled and tried.

It is a significant circumstance that the sub-committee of the Committee on Banking and Currency in the House have agreed upon a report—a very able one, by the way—concurring in the recommendations of the Secretary of the Treasury and the Director of the Mint regarding silver coinage and silver certificates—that is, recommending the discontinuance of both. There is no evidence, however, that this committee was "packed" against silver. The Speaker was himself a silver man, representing a State which gave nearly all its votes for the Silver Bill. So, also, was the Director of the Mint, who held a seat in Congress at the time. So far as "packing" might go it would be more reasonable to look for packing on the other side. The obvious explanation of the report is that Congress and the country have been coming around to a rational view of the matter, aided, perhaps, by the refusal of European countries to join us in international remonetization. The failure of the Paris Conference to reassemble at the appointed time, after two previous failures to do anything or even to attempt anything, has had a marked effect upon the public mind in America. The excuse put forth by the bi-metallicists, that the Conference has been postponed to "give time for public sentiment in England to ripen," is not calculated to heighten confidence in this country in the efficacy of our Silver Bill, seeing that every month's coinage takes out of the market the very material calculated to hasten the ripening process in England, and thus postpones the desired harvest.

A bill having passed the Senate to repeal all "permanent appropriations" except (1) those in which the Government acts merely as a collecting agent to receive or disburse moneys not belonging to itself (Marine Hospital dues, Indian trust funds, etc.), and (2) those which by common consent are necessary and indispensable, such as the salaries of judges and interest on the public debt, it has been discovered that one of the permanent appropriations so repealed is that which provides for the purchase of \$24,000,000 worth of silver bullion each year for coinage into silver dollars, so that hereafter, if the bill becomes a law, it will be necessary for Congress to make an appropriation every year for that purpose. This the silver-men regard as a great outrage and swindle. It is not enough for their purpose that they have a law providing for the coinage of \$2,000,000 of silver per month, which law requires the Appropriation Committee of Congress to report the measure necessary to carry it into effect every session. They demand to be placed in a better position in this regard than the Army, the Navy, the pensioners, or Congress itself, all of whose expenses have to be paid by annual appropriations. The outcry they are making indicates that they have little confidence in the strength of their position.

The question who shall take charge of the lower Mississippi is now before the Senate in the Mississippi Improvement Bill, which proposed to appropriate \$15,000,000 to the repair and building of the levees, but has been amended into a single appropriation of \$6,000,000 for the improvement of navigation. The most noteworthy thing in the debate thus far is the general abandonment by the Democrats, in this matter, of their old sensitiveness about State rights. Senator Morgan, of Alabama, makes a vigorous stand against the appropriation, but then the cynical ascribe this to the fact that Alabama has no levees and does not lie near the Mississippi; and the same might be said of Senator Bayard. The more obvious points in favor of the appropriation are that the work of keeping the Mississippi within its channel is far too great for the individual property-holders along the banks, even if they were able to combine their efforts and work on a common plan; that the States, for somewhat similar reasons, cannot meet the difficulty either; that the General Government alone has the legal power and the money to do all that needs to be done; that it is hardly possible that the constitutional duty of keeping rivers navigable, derived from the power to regulate inter-State commerce, does not include the duty of keeping the waters of a great river within its banks, so that it shall not overflow vast tracts of country, and, besides destroying enormous amounts of property, make its channel unapproachable for hundreds of miles by any species of vehicle. The Mississippi, in the condition in which it has been for the last two or three months, does not subserve the purposes of inter-State commerce. On the contrary, it cuts off the inhabitants of three or four States from the use of it for commercial purposes

altogether, besides producing, in one of the richest regions in the Union, the effects of the ravages of an invading army. Whether, if the Government takes charge of the banks of the lower Mississippi, it will not have to take charge of the banks of all the navigable rivers in the country, is a question which it is of course proper to ask, but the answer to it must be based not on possibilities but on probabilities.

During the week the New York banks gained \$4,093,400 in their surplus reserve, which now is a little in excess of \$9,000,000. No gold was exported during the week, the excess of merchandise imports above exports having been paid for with securities. At the close of the week foreign exchange was nearer to the gold-exporting point than at the opening, but the prevailing opinion was that securities would still be shipped instead of gold. At the Stock Exchange, United States 4 per cent. bonds advanced to 121½, and the 4½s to 116½, these being the highest prices ever paid for them; on the last day of the week a fractional part of this rise was lost. The general depression in the stock market continued until Saturday, when the "bears" began "covering their short sales," with the result of advancing prices at the close of the week above those at the opening of the week. For some time only speculative considerations, and these chiefly personal, have had any influence in the stock market, so thorough has been the demoralization there. The condition of the general trade of the country is rather quiet, but the Clearing-house returns indicate that the volume of business is still very large. The outlook for the grain crops was never better at this season of the year, and the high price of wheat for months warrants the expectation of an immense acreage this year. The stoppage of some mills, and the dulness in several manufacturing branches, have had some influence of an unfavorable character on the coal trade. In all the foreign money markets the rates for money are low. Silver bullion continues steady in price.

A petition has been presented to the House from Milwaukee asking for the prohibition of the Irish immigration by a bill framed on the same lines as the Chinese Bill. The objections to the Irish immigration seem to be very similar in character to those urged against that of the Chinese, with this additional one, that the Irish owe allegiance to a foreign Pope. In fact, there appears to be no race of immigrants in the country which does not think that it would be far better if all the other foreigners were kept out of it, and some even go so far as to think that America would be much improved by the exclusion of the natives. If ever the passion for exclusion gets so strong that the wishes of each race will have to be gratified, the country will be left uninhabited, because all will have to "go." There is no race here whose presence the other races admit to be wholly useful or improving, or in no sense an unavoidable calamity. The "ignorant foreigner" is somewhat serviceable to the native, as furnishing somebody to blame for all the crime and corruption, but the other foreigners get no good out of him, and think he lowers wages, and does not live nicely

enough. But in practice all seem to get on amazingly well together, make plenty of money, and contrive to be happy and comfortable.

As was expected, the contest about the seat for Utah in the House of Representatives has been decided against Mr. Cannon, the Mormon apostle. As our readers will remember, at the last Congressional election Mr. Cannon received a large majority of the votes cast in the Territory of Utah, but Governor Murray gave the certificate of election to Mr. Campbell, the candidate of the Gentiles, although the number of votes cast for the latter was comparatively insignificant. Governor Murray took the ground that Mr. Cannon was not and had never been a citizen of the United States, and was therefore ineligible. Mr. Cannon then contested Mr. Campbell's right to the seat. The House of Representatives has by its vote on the 19th inst. unseated Mr. Campbell on account of his having received only a minority of the votes cast, and declared Mr. Cannon not entitled to the seat on the ground that he is a polygamist. Mr. Cannon made a long speech in his own behalf, availing himself of this opportunity to go into an elaborate defence of the system of polygamy, but without adding anything to the stock of argument usually drawn upon by Mormon missionaries. The effect of the rule thus established by the House of Representatives, that no polygamist shall be admitted as a delegate from a Territory, will not be the election of anti-Mormons in Utah, but the election of Mormons who are not polygamists, for there are a good many of that kind. Mr. Hooper, Mr. Cannon's predecessor as a delegate from Utah, belonged to this class. While Cannon's defence of polygamy on the floor of the House of Representatives can only serve to intensify the popular feeling against that "peculiar institution" and the Mormons generally, his exclusion from the House will, on the other hand, probably be used by the Mormon leaders to inflame the fanaticism of their people. It is not likely to contribute much to the practical solution of the troublesome problem. The working of the Edmunds law, of course, has not yet become apparent, and there is, therefore, no experience yet to enable us to judge how much can be accomplished on that line.

Mr. Cannon would, it appears, have been accused of murder also had his polygamous opinions not laid him low. A Jew, who at one time was a Mormon under the name of Abraham Levy, but is now a plain citizen, without any church, under the name of Adolph Razin, makes oath that in the year 1855 Cannon, after carefully explaining to him the Mormon doctrine of "blood atonement," which makes death the penalty of heresy or heterodoxy, proposed that he (Levy or Razin) should slay one Babbitt, then Secretary of Utah Territory, in order to "redeem and save his (Babbitt's) soul from sin." Razin did accompany Babbitt to Washington, but did not kill him on the way, as had been planned, so that his soul was not redeemed and saved till he was on his way back, when he was duly murdered by some

other person. It appears that this affidavit was prepared with the view simply of ousting Cannon from his seat, but if there is any truth in it, it ought to be used to get him indicted. The "blood-atonement" doctrine works both ways, and has also a strong hold on the Gentile mind, and if Cannon caused the death of Babbitt, his soul also ought to be "redeemed and saved from sin."

There is scarcely any doubt of a general willingness to see the medical attendants of President Garfield, as well as all those who ministered to his comfort during those long months of suffering, liberally compensated. An invidious discussion of the scientific merits of the medical treatment the patient received, as a basis of the valuation of the professional services rendered, seems peculiarly out of place. It may well be assumed that everybody did his best, and that, whatever errors may have been committed, there has never been the least reason to doubt the untiring watchfulness and conscientious devotion surrounding President Garfield's bed. Nobody will, therefore, grudge to those concerned the pecuniary compensation awarded to them in the bill reported to the House of Representatives. Only one feature of that bill seems to us open to serious question. It is the provision that Surgeon-General Barnes and Dr. Woodward be promoted in their Army rank and receive pay accordingly as a reward for the services rendered on this occasion. This seems to us very objectionable. Promotion in the Army should be regulated upon fixed principles. The mere fact that Army surgeons were employed in a case of importance would certainly not give them any claim to higher rank. Even in monarchical countries they would in such a case be considered entitled only to a decoration in the shape of a ribbon or a cross, but scarcely to a promotion over the heads of others. This would be justified only by conspicuously distinguished service, which in the case of Drs. Barnes and Woodward is scarcely asserted.

Now that District Attorney Woodford is about to make another effort to bring Mr. N. M. Curtis to trial for levying assessments on officeholders, we trust Mr. Curtis himself will waive technicalities and meet the case like a man. This is the more desirable because we understand his principal defence is that he behaved gallantly at Fort Fisher, and it does not become a brave soldier to try to escape answering in a court of justice by such pleas as that his name is not "Nehemiah," but Newton. Moreover, there is an English decision which tells dead against the Fort Fisher plea—viz., that meritorious behavior at Waterloo was no defence to a charge of furious driving in the streets. There is, indeed, no system of jurisprudence which allows military services to be pleaded in bar of a prosecution for civil crimes or misdemeanors. Such services may properly be considered by the pardoning power after conviction, but the District Attorney and the court and jury can take no notice of them. Moreover, the better soldier a man has been the more careful should he be not to seem even to wish to evade an accusation of any kind.

or to get an advantage by such a thing as a "misnomer." Dodging of all kinds goes ill with the military character. Mr. Curtis, far from trying to avoid a trial, ought to be urging the Civil-Service Reform Association and the District Attorney to bring him promptly to the bar, and to indict him by any name they please, as long as he is the man they mean. Brave soldiers ask eagerly where are their accusers, not for the purpose of escaping from them around the corner, but for the purpose of confronting them.

There has been a good deal of controversy in the West as to Mr. Jesse James's spiritual condition, and we have ourselves received one or two angry remonstrances for alleging his standing in the Baptist Church before his death to have been good. There is, of course, more or less obscurity about everything connected with him, and we should be sorry to vouch absolutely for the truth of anything that is said about him, except that he was a robber and murderer of the worst kind; but that we were not wrong about the regularity of his position in the Church, for which one correspondent has challenged us to produce "a particle of proof," we think the following letter, which has recently appeared, is sufficient evidence:

"To the Kansas City Times.

"AUSTIN, Texas, April 12.—In your sketch of the religious views of Jesse James you are mistaken as to the time of his baptism. In October, 1877, at a meeting I held in the Baptist Church in Kearney, he professed conversion, and I baptized him. He prayed several times publicly in the prayer meetings, and seemed very much interested in Frank, for whom he prayed as 'his wayward brother.'—Yours very truly,

"G. W. ROGERS,

"Pastor Baptist Church, Austin, Texas."

We may add that we have no doubt that there are plenty of converts of the same type in Ray, Clay, Jackson, and Johnson Counties, Mo., which, no doubt, accounts in part for the exceeding dulness of real estate in that region.

It appears that Mr. Frank James, far from being dead, has put himself at the head of "a movement" which "has for its aim the extermination of all whose names are associated with the death of his brother Jesse." The gentlemen who are associated with him in this enterprise come from "the Missouri bottoms," or, in other words, the region which produced such politicians and social philosophers as "Polk Wells, Sil Norris, Jim Dougherty, John Pomeroy, and others," and they are reinforced by "a few tried mountain outlaws" from New Mexico. The movement involves, we are told, not only "the removal" of the two Fords, but "all informants and witnesses in Crocker Neck." It will thus be seen that the prospects of real estate in Missouri are not quite so good as the Governor thought they were after Mr. James had been killed. Indeed, it is safe to say that there will be no considerable rise in the value of farms in some parts of the State until the various "removals" which Mr. James is now contemplating have taken place.

The persecution of the Jews in Russia is going on with the old ferocity. The things which a few days ago occurred in the neighborhood of Odessa will form some of the dark-

est pages of this horrible and revolting story. It seems as if the Russian Government were either insincere in its proclaimed intention to put a stop to these disgraceful scenes, or as if it were powerless to do so. The latter is scarcely to be assumed. By way of contrast, it is very gratifying to observe that in Germany not only the anti-Jew movement has completely died out, but that very earnest demonstrations of sympathy with the suffering Jews in Russia, and active efforts to aid them, have taken its place. In Austria, too, organizations have been set on foot for the same purpose.

Sagasta has carried the ratification of his commercial treaty with France in the Cortes by a majority of 237 to 59, after a very exciting debate. The tariff question in Spain is curiously mixed up with various other questions, so that the division does not really represent the relative strength of freetraders and protectionists. Castelar, for instance, refrained from voting, though he is doubtless a free-trader, because his Republican supporters are mainly found in the great manufacturing towns, and the great manufacturing towns are nearly all in Catalonia, the manufacturers and artisans of which are almost ready to rise in arms for the tariff. The rest of Spain, however, which does not like the Catalonians, and thinks they have grown rich on their neighbors, and is immensely interested in the great increase in the French demand for Spanish wine, stands by the Minister. In fact, the Spanish wine trade is now growing at such a rate, in consequence of the failure of the French vines, that it is bidding fair to effect a complete economic revolution, and to set the country once more on its legs financially. The statistics of the exports to France—though they are doubtless nothing to what they will be under the new treaty—are quite sufficient to set the consumers of French wine all over the world to asking whether they would not do well to import the Spanish, and Hungarian, and Italian wines themselves, and do their own doctoring and mixing.

The Gladstone Budget is a less cheering document than was hoped for, but it is remarkably cheering considering what the outlook was two years or even a year ago. One of the most encouraging of the facts brought to light is that the falling off in the revenue derived from alcoholic drinks, which is considerable, does not this year indicate, as it has previously done, diminished income on the part of the laboring classes. It has hitherto been one of the discreditable features of British finance, that in good times the increase of revenue was derived largely from increased consumption of beer and spirits by the workingmen and women; while, on the other hand, in bad times a decline in the consumption of alcohol was usually accompanied by other evidences of poverty, such as diminished deposits in the savings banks. This year, however, decrease of revenue from alcohol has been accompanied by an increase of deposits. Next to the receipts from alcohol, nothing affords so good a test of the condition of the

country as the income tax, but of this the report makes no mention. Two of the heaviest items of increased expenditure—one of \$7,000,000, and one of \$450,000—are the direct results of Beaconsfield's adventures in Afghanistan, Africa, and Cyprus. If he had been allowed to keep on for another year or two, he would probably have quadrupled them. The Afghan War cost \$100,000,000, which was as much wasted as if thrown into the sea.

The Irish Home Rulers have received a piece of support which must make a much deeper impression on the English mind than anything which has yet come from abroad, in the shape of an address to the Queen, voted unanimously by the Canadian House of Commons, testifying to the peaceableness, loyalty, and prosperity of the Irish in Canada, asking for the release of the suspects, and the bestowal on Ireland of the home rule to which Canada owes so much, and which the House thinks would do much to assuage that hostility to the Imperial Government which now diverts from Canada a large part of the Irish emigration. What will make this the more effective is that it reaches England just as another clamor for more coercion is beginning, or, in other words, for another passionate trial of a remedy which has failed in Ireland more conspicuously, and more frequently, than it has ever failed anywhere, and to which no civilized community would to-day advise England again to resort. If ever there was a case in which pure force on a great scale should not be appealed to, it is in a struggle against paying rent, on the part of a large population.

It would appear from Monday's despatches that the rumors which have been current for some weeks, that Mr. Gladstone would shortly announce a change in the Ministerial programme as regards Ireland, were true. The suspects, it is said, are all to be released, which was almost certain after the recent confession of both the Premier and Mr. Forster, in Parliament, that the Coercion Act had proved a failure. The summary powers of the magistrates are to be greatly increased, and something—really the most important thing of all—is to be done to relieve the tenants who are laden with arrears of rent contracted during the bad years, and which, if the Land Act had a retrospective effect, would undoubtedly be largely disallowed by the Commission. It is the evictions for non-payment of these arrears, which since the beginning of the year have put between three and four thousand persons out on the roadside, which more than aught else are keeping up the murders and outrages. The account given of them by Mr. Tuke, the English Quaker banker and philanthropist, who has lately visited the west of Ireland, is very shocking. He declares that he thinks the Government ought not to lend troops and police for purposes so barbarous, and when one reads his description of the condition in which the evictions leave helpless women and children, it abates a good deal of one's surprise at the savage ferocity with which the ejected tenants avenge themselves.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

MR. WILLIAM HENRY HURLBERT, brother of the late Minister to Peru, appeared before the Shipherd investigating committee on Thursday. He testified that his brother consulted with him in regard to the letter from Shipherd offering him \$250,000, and said that his brother had regarded it as a bribe and desired to have it immediately exposed, but the witness advised him to wait for further developments. In regard to the despatch with the marginal note, "Go it, Steve," the witness was not very clear. He said in substance that it might be in existence, and he had an "impression that a marginal note might have been made on a despatch to my brother," but the witness denied that he had such a despatch in his possession, or had shown it to Shipherd. On Monday Mr. Blaine appeared before the Committee, and flatly contradicted almost every assertion of importance that Shipherd had made in regard to him. He said he never saw, and knew nothing about, the papers alleged to be missing from the State Department, and that the statement made by Shipherd that he acquainted Mr. Blaine, at the interview on July 25, with the Hurlbut bribery letter, was unqualifiedly false. Mr. Blaine read letters from men whom Shipherd claimed as his counsel, and who he had said were informed of the bribery letter, denying any knowledge of the letter until after its publication. Mr. Blaine also expressed the opinion that President Garfield had died without having heard of the Peruvian Company, the Cochet claim, or Jacob R. Shipherd; and said that with Shipherd "falsehood is an employment and perjury a pastime." The further examination of Mr. Blaine was postponed until Wednesday.

On Thursday the President nominated Alphonso Taft, of Ohio, to be Minister to Austria; William L. Dayton, of New Jersey, to be Minister to the Netherlands; Nicholas Fish, of New York, to be Minister to Belgium; John M. Francis, of New York, to be Chargé d'Affaires to Portugal; J. P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania, to be Chargé d'Affaires to Denmark, and Adam Badeau, of New York, to be Consul-General at Havana.

The Fitz-John Porter case was again under consideration at a Cabinet meeting on Thursday. General Porter has presented a new petition for relief from the sentence of the court-martial. It was referred to the Secretary of War.

The President has transmitted to Congress a note addressed by the Mexican Minister to the Secretary of State proposing the conclusion of a convention between the two countries for defining the boundary between the United States and Mexico from the Rio Grande westward to the Pacific Ocean by the erection of durable monuments. The Secretary of War has expressed himself favorably upon the proposition, and the President states that he deems it important that the boundary line as defined by the existing treaties, and already once surveyed, should be run anew and marked as suggested.

A bill was reported to the Senate on Friday to provide for the establishment of a Government for Alaska. It provides for the appointment of a Governor, in whom shall be vested executive power in and over the Territory; for a Secretary, who shall be ex-officio Treasurer, and prescribes that the judicial power of the Territory shall be vested in a Supreme Court and four inferior courts; that the Governor, Chief-Justice, Surveyor-General, and Marshal, together with the Collector of Customs of the district, shall for the first year of the operation of the Territorial Government be established a legislative council, with the Governor as ex-officio President. Sitka is to be the seat of Government. The bill further provides that the Territory shall be entitled to a delegate in the House of Representatives, who shall

enjoy privileges similar to those enjoyed by other Territorial delegates, and that all male residents of the Territory, including civilized Indians, shall be entitled to vote.

Advices from Alaska state that all indications point to a rush of miners to that Territory during the summer, and lawlessness and bloodshed are anticipated unless some form of government is instituted there. Miners are arriving on every steamer, and they announce their intention of locating on quartz claims. In some instances they have already done so; and they say that as there is no law in the Territory they will hold their claims by force.

The Mississippi Improvement Bill has occupied the attention of the Senate during the week. On Friday Senator Morgan, of Alabama, made a speech against the bill, which, coming as it did from a Southerner, attracted considerable attention. "The Government has no right," he said, "to lay a specific tax on the people of Alabama to protect the people of the Mississippi Valley." The bill was passed on Tuesday without a division.

The Senate Committee on Commerce, on Thursday, at the request of Senators Hoar and Dawes, of Massachusetts, postponed consideration of the nomination of Roland Worthington to the Boston Customs Collectors in order to afford the two Senators a convenient opportunity to be heard in opposition to the nomination.

Mr. Cannon, the Mormon delegate from Utah, made a speech in defence and justification of polygamy in the House of Representatives on Wednesday, but it did him little good, for the resolution to admit him to his seat was defeated by a vote of 123 to 79. Utah is now without representation in the House.

The House Committee on the Judiciary, after considering a number of bills to establish a uniform system of bankruptcy, has reported the bill known as the "Lowell Bill," which was introduced into the House by Representative Robinson.

A petition was received in the House of Representatives on Friday, asking Congress to take measures to prevent immigration of the Irish, and to pass a bill for this purpose similar to the Chinese Bill. The signers of the petition were said to be Orangemen.

In the case of Hallet Kilbourn against J. G. Thompson, ex-Sergeant-at-Arms of the House of Representatives, for damages claimed to have been incurred by Kilbourn through his arrest and confinement in jail by Thompson, the jury rendered a verdict of \$100,000 damages for Kilbourn. Kilbourn was arrested in 1876 on a charge of contempt of the House of Representatives, and was confined in jail for forty-five days, and released under a writ of habeas corpus.

Secretary Folger stated on Thursday that the Treasury reserve, which is now more than thirty-nine per cent. of the United States notes outstanding, would undoubtedly be in such a condition that he would soon consider the propriety of making another call for bonds. The amount of reserve at the close of business on Wednesday was \$136,069,502 26, over and above all liabilities except United States notes.

The Supreme Court in banc of the District of Columbia met on Monday. District Attorney Corkhill stated to the Court that the bill of exceptions in the Guiteau case had been signed and filed, and he asked the Court to fix an early date for hearing argument and deciding thereon. Mr. Reed, counsel for Guiteau, said he would like further time to prepare his argument, and asked that the hearing be set for three weeks from that day. The Court, however, believed that two weeks would give ample time for preparation. Mr. Scoville has written a letter formally announcing his withdrawal from the case, in which he says: "The imperative cause of withdrawal is my inability, without absolute ruin to my family and my-

self, to give further time to this cause away from home."

Mrs. Scoville announces that she intends to prepare a petition to the President for commutation of Guiteau's sentence to imprisonment for life, and travel round the country lecturing and circulating the petition for signatures.

The motion for a bill of particulars made by the counsel for the Star-route conspirators has been overruled by Judge Wylie. Another dilatory motion was made on Thursday to withdraw the plea of "not guilty" entered by the Court in the case of an ex-clerk of the Department indicted with Dorsey and Brady, so as to allow the arguing of a motion to quash his indictment.

The prosecution of the persons implicated in the election frauds in South Carolina is progressing successfully. On Wednesday the Grand Jury presented true bills of indictment against thirty-nine persons for conspiracy to obstruct qualified voters in the exercise of the rights of suffrage in the last general election. The jury charged with the case of the managers of the election at the Maysville precinct, however, were discharged on Monday, owing to their failure to agree upon a verdict.

The Committee on Trade of the Cotton Exchange, which has been investigating the charges of fraud in the cotton packed this season, has made a report to the effect that the complaints, though not without foundation, are much exaggerated; that the adulteration is not intentional, but is due to a variety of causes; and that the general agitation of the subject cannot fail to have a beneficial effect.

The Oregon Republican State Convention met on Thursday and nominated a Congressman and State officers. The platform declares that the Hawaiian Reciprocity Treaty is an imposition on the Government and people, and should be abrogated; deplors the assassination of President Garfield; regards the President's veto of the Chinese Bill as unwise and unjust; condemns the policy which prompted it, as opposed to the principles of the Republican party as expressed in the platform of the last National Republican Convention, and demands that the Representatives of Oregon in Congress shall persist in advocating the restriction of Chinese immigration.

The revenue steamer *Corwin* has been sent to the relief of the officers and crew of the *Rodgers* at Tiapka. The *Corwin* is to sail for Tiapka as soon as the condition of the ice in the northern seas will permit, and will transport Captain Berry and his party to the nearest port visited by a regular line of steamers, so that they can be brought home at the earliest moment.

Monticello, Louisiana, was visited on Saturday afternoon by a destructive cyclone. Only three houses were left standing, and ten persons were killed instantly; and advices from several counties of North Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama report cyclones which caused great damage to property and considerable loss of life.

There have been great floods in the Red River Valley in Manitoba. On Wednesday last the flood reached the city of Winnipeg, and did great damage. Bridges were swept away, telegraphic communication cut off, and parts of the city flooded.

Indian troubles have begun in Arizona, where not less than forty persons have been killed, and news has been received of several massacres of the inhabitants of sheep and cattle ranches. The hostile Indians are reported to be Chiricahuas, and number about 300. They are moving south, probably with the intention of getting into Mexico, but it is hoped that the troops will be able to prevent their escape. A mass meeting was held at Safford, Arizona, on Monday evening, Governor Tuttle presiding, and it was decided to raise a force of volunteers to take the field for two or three months.

FOREIGN.

Charles Robert Darwin died at his residence, Down House, near Orpington, England, on Thursday. He will be buried in Westminster Abbey, near Sir Isaac Newton. Canon Liddon, preaching at St. Paul's Cathedral, and Canons Prothero and Barry, at Westminster Abbey, on Sunday, referred to Mr. Darwin's theories, and said they were not necessarily hostile to the fundamental truths of religion. A London despatch says that these sermons are looked upon as in wonderful contrast to the reception first given Mr. Darwin's doctrines by the religious world.

Mr. Gladstone introduced his budget in the House of Commons on Monday. In his speech he said the actual surplus of revenue over expenditure for the past year was £352,000. The actual expenditure for the last year had been £718,000 less than the estimates, but a comparison of the expenditure of 1881-82 with that of 1880-81, showed an augmentation of more than £2,250,000. The condition of trade could not be called unsatisfactory, but the effect of the improvement upon the revenue of the country was sluggish. This he attributed not to a diminution of the resources of the country, but to the absence of the extreme prices which had marked the previous period of prosperity. He regretted the growing popular indifference in regard to increase of expenditure, and thought the system of framing estimates on the sole responsibility of the Ministers had not worked satisfactorily. The Americans, he said, had shown extraordinary vigor and fortitude in reducing their debt, and in bearing heavy taxation for that purpose, and their record in this respect compared favorably with that of England of late years. The revenue for the coming year was estimated at £84,935,000, showing an estimated surplus of £305,000, which surplus was so small as to force him to abandon the hope of great financial readjustment in connection with the County Government Bill; and in order to fulfil promises in regard to the readjustment of the highway rate, he proposed to raise £250,000 more by a slight increase in the carriage duty. This was the only novelty in the budget. Mr. Gladstone concluded by assuring the House and the country that he had concealed nothing. Sir Stafford Northcote said he would defer criticism on the budget and on the speech.

An angry debate took place in the House of Commons on Thursday on Irish affairs. A circular had been issued by an Inspector of Police, declaring that as there was reason to believe that every means would be used to assassinate a certain Mr. Lloyd, who had been very active in opposing the "no-rent" movement, it behooved his escort to prevent it and to use firearms on the bare possibility of such an attempt. Mr. Sexton said this circular was a gross and barbarous incitement to murder, and he called upon Mr. Forster to insist upon its withdrawal. Mr. Forster defended the circular, although he confessed that one or two paragraphs of it should not have been written. He said that cowardly ruffians who were likely to shoot from behind a hedge would abstain if they thought themselves in danger. During the debate Mr. Redmond persisted in denouncing Mr. Forster as dishonest, upon which the Speaker named him, and his suspension was voted by 207 yeas to 12 nays. Sir Stafford Northcote said he hoped the Government would continue to protect Mr. Lloyd, and declared that the Opposition would do nothing to weaken the Government in Ireland. Mr. Forster has, however, since withdrawn the circular.

There has been a slight lull in the business of outrages in Ireland. Mr. Smythe, member of Parliament for Tipperary, in reply to a vote of censure passed on him by the priests of Tipperary for not supporting the Land League, violently denounced the League, and declared that until its conspiracy is demolished, root and branch, Ireland will have no peace. Mr.

Parnell arrived at Kilmainham Jail on Monday evening. He was loudly cheered at the Dublin station, but avoided, as far as possible, any demonstration. It is reported that while in London Mr. Parnell had a conference with leading Home Rulers.

In the House of Commons on Monday, Sir Charles Dilke, replying to questions, said that the correspondence relative to the American suspects would be presented to Parliament this week, and that the Government had no intention of introducing a bill to enable them to deal with alien suspects. The question of the American suspects has been discussed in the English newspapers during the week. The *Standard* said on Monday that the speedy release of the suspects on terms that might involve the recall of Mr. Lowell—whatever that may mean—the gradual release of all political suspects, and the trial of those detained upon suspicion of complicity in outrages, the substitution for the Coercion Act of a large increase of summary jurisdiction vested in magistrates, and the amendment of the arrears and purchase clauses of the Land Act, are the principal features of the ministerial programme.

The Cabinet Council on Saturday discussed Mr. W. H. Smith's resolution for extending the purchase clauses of the Land Act. It is understood that the Cabinet resolved cordially to accept the assistance of the Opposition in carrying out practical legislation in this direction.

On Wednesday evening the House of Commons considered a bill introduced by Mr. Ashton Dilke, which proposes to throw upon the community the expenses of the returning officer in conducting a Parliamentary election. The bill also provides that a candidate must obtain an absolute majority of the votes recorded or submit to a second ballot. This measure, which is supported by the Government, passed its second reading by a vote of 87 to 85.

The Grand Jury returned a true bill for high treason against MacLean, who attempted to shoot Queen Victoria at Windsor on the 2d of March, on Wednesday. He was at once placed in the dock and pleaded not guilty. Sir Henry James, the Attorney-General, opened the case for the prosecution, and Mr. Montague Williams for the defence. Mr. Williams said it could be proved that MacLean had had the homicidal mania for years, and had been confined in an asylum. The Superintendents of the Salisbury and Broadmoor Asylums testified to MacLean's insanity, and said they believed him incapable of appreciating the nature or quality of any of his acts. Mr. Williams asked for his acquittal on the ground of insanity. Lord Chief-Justice Coleridge summed up the case, and the jury, after being out only five minutes, returned a verdict of not guilty, on the ground of insanity. On Thursday it was ordered that MacLean be detained in custody during her Majesty's pleasure.

A meeting was held at the Mansion House in London on Thursday in furtherance of the proposed fisheries exhibition at London in 1883. Mr. Lowell, the American Minister, said he had grounds for believing that his Government would participate in the affair. He said he had that morning transmitted by cable to Washington the formal invitation.

In London, on Wednesday, a great number of persons wore primroses, Lord Beaconsfield's favorite flower, that day being the anniversary of his death.

The Spanish Chamber of Deputies has approved the Franco-Spanish Commercial Treaty by a vote of 237 to 59. On Monday a motion of censure against Señor Comacho, Minister of Finance, was rejected by a vote of 152 to 46. An anonymous proclamation, dated Barcelona, has been addressed to the Senators and Deputies, threatening with death those who vote for the treaty.

The French Cabinet Council has approved

the scheme of M. de Lesseps for cutting a canal through the neck of land dividing the Gulf of Gabes from the salt marshes and low-lying parts of the Desert of Sahara to the south of Tunis. It is suggested that if this canal be cut, the sea will once more fill up the Desert of Sahara. The political advantage to be gained by the scheme will be the insulation of Tunis and Algeria by creating a water barrier between them and Tripoli. The cost of the canal is estimated at 65,000,000 francs.

The Corporation of Marseilles, in France, has brought a suit against the ex-Empress Eugénie to compel her to relinquish possession of the Imperial château which was presented under the Empire to the late Emperor by the municipality, but which, it is claimed, now belongs to the town.

The new cable connecting Emden, Germany, with the Anglo-American cable system at Valencia, was opened on Saturday. The new line forms a direct link between the Empire of Germany and the United States. Congratulatory messages were exchanged between the Emperor and President Arthur.

The editor of the *Tageblatt*, who was recently sentenced to three months' imprisonment for libelling Prince Bismarck, has been sentenced to another week's confinement for inserting a letter in his paper about M. Gambetta, which the court held to be blasphemous. At the instance of Prince Bismarck also, the circulation of one of the minor comic papers in Berlin has been suspended for two years.

A newspaper in Vienna publishes an account received from the frontier which says that previous to the arrival of the Governor of Podolia at Balta, the Russian troops there aided in plundering instead of assisting the Jews. Forty persons were seriously injured during the progress of the riots, some of whom have since died. Fully a thousand houses were destroyed, and the damage done is estimated at 4,500,000 rubles.

An imperial order has been promulgated in Russia prohibiting military men from publicly delivering political speeches, or expressing political opinions, and War Department officials are prohibited from publishing, without the sanction of their superiors, documents referring to the internal and external affairs of foreign countries.

Osman Pasha Rafki, formerly Egyptian Minister of War, who ordered the arrest of the officers who participated in the military revolt of a few months ago, has been arrested on the charge of complicity in the plot to assassinate Arabi Bey. Just as the Court was about to pass sentence on the Circassian officers implicated in this plot they were again arrested in consequence of the reception of evidence that they had been intriguing to procure the restoration of the ex-Khedive.

Montero is now President of Peru, and has resigned all military authority, having conferred ample powers for that purpose upon Don Miguel Iglesias, who was Minister of War under the Prado Administration and Pierola Dictatorship. The Chilians are undecided whether to treat with Montero or not. The latter is making efforts to unite all the various revolutionary leaders who have sprung up in Peru lately, and if he succeeds in doing so he will satisfy the doubts of the Chilians as to the possibility of forming a Government of Peru outside of their own lines.

A resolution was offered in the Canadian House of Commons on Friday, setting forth the desirability of Canada negotiating directly her own commercial treaties, and not, as at present, through the British Foreign Office. Mr. Blake, who offered the resolution, said the history of British diplomacy, so far as Canada was concerned, had been a history of error, wrong, blunder, and concession. In the debate that followed Mr. Mackenzie supported the resolution, which was, however, defeated by a vote of 104 to 58.

TUESDAY, April 26, 1882.

THE PERUVIAN MYSTERY.

THE testimony given by Mr. Hurlbert, of the *World*, on Thursday, before the House Foreign Affairs Committee was important in more ways than one. He produced a letter from his brother, General Hurlbut, to himself, which is very valuable as showing the impression made on the mind of the former by Mr. Blaine's despatches. The letter is as follows:

"The Chilean papers are full of that infernal Shipherd and his pretences. They have been kicked out of this legation and out of the State Department; but he is an indefatigable nuisance. I hope Sam Randall will call for all papers in the department in reference to him and his affairs. I have sent all his letters back to the department, and I anxiously desire that the correspondence be made public. I have fears (I hope not well grounded) that our Government means to slide out of the American position here. My personal talk with Blaine and Garfield, of course, will not appear in any official correspondence, but it was the motive for my action. I think they will throw me overboard unless Congress backs up the American line I have taken here. Personally I care little about it, but I must say that in Blaine's letter of the 22d of November to me there was a manifest disposition to hedge."

It must be said that this interpretation of the despatch of November 22 was not unnatural. Down to this time there is no indication in the correspondence of any desire on the part of Mr. Blaine to interfere with "Steve's" general diplomatic operations, which are easily explicable as having been the result of "personal talk" with the Secretary of State, but are unintelligible in the light of his formal instructions.

His instructions were explicit on the point that the United States "cannot refuse to recognize the rights which the Chilean Government has acquired by the successes of the war," and that "a cession of territory" might be "the necessary price to be paid for peace." Now, what General Hurlbut had actually done had been to announce to Admiral Lynch, the Chilean commander, in a "memorandum," that the United States would "regard with disfavor" any annexation of Peruvian territory; to write a letter to Garcia, the secretary of Pierola, Calderon's rival, with whom he had not even the right to hold diplomatic intercourse on such a subject, announcing, as if by authority, that Calderon would not cede Tarapaca to Chili under any circumstances; he had also telegraphed to our Minister to the Argentine Confederation, suggesting that the latter Government should send a minister to Peru, there being at the time a serious outstanding difference between Chili and the Argentine Confederation. For every one of these things Mr. Blaine, in his despatch of November 22, found grave fault with Mr. Hurlbut, and notified him that he was to be superseded by a special envoy.

Why should Mr. Blaine have written such a despatch as this? Hurlbut's idea is that it showed that he wanted to "hedge"—i. e., that he was afraid the active diplomacy of his emissary was going too far, and that he wanted merely to throw him overboard and set himself right. But the subsequent events show that this was by no means all. Hurlbut had accomplished one thing of great importance; he had, by his despatches, "memorandum," and pronunciamientos on the subject of the terms of peace, managed to put

Calderon, who from the first had been a mere diplomatic puppet, ready to do anything suggested to him for the government which had created him, in the attitude of resisting all idea of territorial cession. Calderon had accordingly been arrested and carried off to Santiago. Notwithstanding this, and notwithstanding the declaration of martial law by the Chileans, and the non-existence of any actual Peruvian government in Peru, Hurlbut was still directed by Mr. Blaine to go on recognizing "any legitimate representative" Calderon might have left behind him. A few weeks later the publication of the instructions to Mr. Trescot appeared, and made the meaning of this obvious. Mr. Trescot was instructed to demand an explanation of the arrest of Calderon from Chili; and this was accompanied by the announcement that the arrest was regarded as an insult to the United States.

It thus appears probable that from the first it had been Mr. Blaine's intention to embroil this country with Chili. This explanation of his behavior is further strengthened by the fact that as long ago as August 15, Kilpatrick, who had taken to Santiago instructions agreeing with those which Hurlbut took to Lima, reported that Chili acceded to all the demands of the United States—in the language of the Chilean Secretary of State, "out of respect for the opinion of the Administration at Washington"—and agreed that no territory should be exacted unless other means of indemnifying Chili failed. Notwithstanding this, "Steve" was allowed to continue ranting and blustering on Calderon's behalf, until the Chileans, to put an end to the farce, were forced to throw the latter into prison. That this was exactly what Mr. Blaine wanted can hardly be doubted. It furnished him, as he thought, with a "casus belli" against Chili, while he was enabled, at the same time, to repudiate all responsibility for Mr. Hurlbut. He had used him to drive Chili into taking a stand, just as he had previously allowed Shipherd to use his wonderful claims to make it appear that the United States had a material stake in the contest. That he should apparently have thought he had now got the Chileans "just where he wanted them," is not the least curious or characteristic fact in the history of his proceedings.

The testimony given by Mr. Blaine on Monday was effective only in showing Shipherd to be an irreclaimable liar. The late Secretary of State denied emphatically that he had ever heard from Shipherd anything about his offer of \$250,000 "pool stock" in the Peruvian Company to General Hurlbut, and produced a letter from Senator Blair, who, according to Shipherd, was present at the interview at which the subject was mentioned, corroborating his denial. Shipherd's story of his having discussed the offer generally with his various "counsel" was upset by the production of letters from Messrs. Boutwell, Robertson, and others denying that they had ever heard of it. His mendacity was further shown by a letter from Mr. Evarts with regard to an "opinion" on the Cochet claim, relied on by Shipherd as part of his "case." This was to the effect that "if Cochet was the discoverer of guano, his dis-

covery vested in him the title to one-third of all the guano in Peru, and he may at his option claim one-third of each heap, or any other equitable one-third of the total." Mr. Blaine produced a letter from Mr. Evarts denying that he ever gave Shipherd or any one else an opinion as to the validity of the Cochet claim. Mr. Elmore, the Peruvian Minister, has also written a letter denying the story about the "marginal-note" despatch.

So far, therefore, as Shipherd is concerned, his attempt to "jump on Jim Blaine" must be regarded as a failure. But Mr. Blaine's attempt to explain his own action as Secretary of State is not helped by showing that Shipherd has perjured himself.

He says that the Cochet claim, represented by Shipherd, is entirely separate from the Landreau claim, the recognition of which he urged in his despatches to General Hurlbut. This is true; but the important question is whether Mr. Blaine did not allow Shipherd for months to suppose that if he, Shipherd, could get a sufficient backing, he might secure the good offices of the State Department? It was a natural part of his general plan to take advantage of any "American" claims that could be used to threaten Chili with. If not, why did Mr. Blaine make no attempt to find out what was the basis of the Cochet claim at the time that Shipherd called upon him? He seems to have regarded Shipherd's "backing" as very good, for he brings up the names of his various "counsel" and alleged "copartners" as a reason for having listened to him at the outset. He made no attempt at the time to find out the truth as to the extraordinary "opinion" attributed by Shipherd to Mr. Evarts, nor, indeed, to find out the truth about his story in any respect. He made Shipherd's acquaintance in July of last year. It was not till December that he became aware, as he wrote to General Hurlbut, of the "indecent and dishonor" of his advocacy of the Cochet claim.

His testimony with regard to the Landreau claim is very significant. This he admits urging; and to explain his action he misrepresents in a shocking manner all the facts of the case. A resolution recommending the claim to the attention of the President once received, as he says, the unanimous vote of the House of Representatives, and it was subsequently thrown out by the Senate as a purely executive matter. Secretary Fish wrote two or three letters about it, in which Mr. Blaine says he "commended" this claim; but, as a matter of fact, the utmost length to which he ever went was to permit our Minister at Lima to urge "unofficially" a "speedy investigation of it." It had also "been reported upon by Mr. Evarts." On the strength of such facts as these Mr. Blaine boldly declares that "in the history of claims in the United States there has not been any claim in the State Department so strongly backed and endorsed by precedent and power as that was." It was with regard to this claim that Mr. Blaine instructed Mr. Trescot on December 16: "While disabusing the mind of the Chilean Government of any impression that the United States meditates intervention on behalf of private claims, beyond the use of its good offices, you will say that justice seems to

demand that Landreau should have an opportunity to be heard in support of his claim before a tribunal in Peru competent to decide it; and that if decided in his favor, a treaty of peace which might cede territory to Chili should not be made in disregard of any rights which Mr. Landreau may be found, after an impartial judicial investigation, to possess." As there were no courts in Peru at the time, the construction put by Mr. Belmont on this—that it was in effect saying that there should be no treaty of peace without a recognition of the Landreau claim—seems much less far-fetched than Mr. Blaine seeks to represent it.

On the whole, Mr. Blaine's testimony does not weaken the impression that his plan was to use these "claims" to force a quarrel upon Chili. He let Shipherd use the Cochet claim, and threw him over when he had used it long enough.

ALIENS AND NATIVES UNDER THE IRISH COERCION ACT.

THE discussion in England over the position of the imprisoned Irish-American suspects continues, and is certainly sufficiently confused to bewilder any ordinary reader. Two or three of the principal journals admit that the United States are within their rights in insisting that their citizens shall not be imprisoned for an indefinite period without trial; but most others, the *London Standard* among the number in a recent issue, maintain that no foreigner is entitled to any discrimination whatever in his favor in the administration of the law of the land, and that it is preposterous for him to demand it. There is as yet no sign of any general consensus of English opinion on the subject. This is the more surprising because, in spite of the interest the question is exciting on both sides of the water, nobody has as yet been able to cite a single precedent, or a single dictum from any of the text-books of international law, in support of the doctrine that the municipal law of any country can authorize its executive to imprison foreigners without trial in time of peace. If there is any respectable authority for the practice, if it has ever been formally acquiesced in with regard to its own citizens by any Christian state, it ought to be easy to produce the despatch in which its reasonableness or inevitableness was acknowledged. But nothing of the kind is forthcoming.

The text-books and diplomatic correspondence teem with admissions that a foreigner owes obedience to the laws of the country in which he has taken up his abode, and must submit to whatever punishment they prescribe for their violation. Nowhere has this principle been admitted more fully than by Mr. Marcy in discussing the Tausig case, in 1854.

"Every nation," said he, "whenever its laws are violated by any one owing obedience to them, whether he be a citizen or stranger, has a right to inflict the penalties incurred upon the transgressor, if found within its jurisdiction. The case is not altered by the character of the laws, unless they are in derogation of the well-established international code. No nation has a right to supervise the municipal code of another, or claim that its citizens or subjects shall be exempted from the operation of such a code, if they have voluntarily placed themselves under it. . . . This principle does

not at all interfere with the right of any state to protect its citizens, or those entitled to its protection, when abroad, from wrongs and injuries, from arbitrary acts of oppression, or deprivation of property, as contradistinguished from penalties and punishments incurred by the infraction of the laws of the country within whose jurisdiction the sufferers have placed themselves."

This is all indisputable, but it is none the less true that this rule is, and always has been, based on the assumption that the question whether a foreigner has violated the laws of the country in which he resides shall be determined by some sort of judicial inquiry before the punishment is inflicted; that is, there must be a trial before some sort of tribunal in order to ascertain whether he is really a "transgressor," and whether he is really guilty of the "infraction." The law may be, in our estimation, an unwise, or unnecessary, or cruel law, and the people who live under it much to be pitied; but of these things we have no right to complain. When, however, it is alleged that one of our citizens has broken it, we are bound to ask that the facts shall be ascertained by a trial, whether it be before a jury or a single judge, before a lawyer or a layman.

Now a trial does not mean simple accusation; it means an accusation followed by proof, and it means the communication of the evidence to the accused, the concession of reasonable time and opportunity for the production of counter-proof, and the submission of the whole matter to some sort of judge, whose character and position guarantee his fairness. Imprisonment inflicted on mere accusation, without proof, and for an indefinite period, is not a punishment, in the sense in which the term is used by legal writers. It is not a penalty inflicted for the commission of an offence; it is a penalty inflicted on A because B thinks him a dangerous or objectionable person. It is therefore arbitrary, and because arbitrary, oppressive. It is not a whit less objectionable than the seizure of a man's property on suspicion. If Mr. Forster were to distrain the goods of an Irish-American, and sell them at auction, and pay the money into the British Treasury, because he suspected him, or some policeman suspected him, the act would not be made a whit the less obnoxious by his calling it the levying of a fine, or because British citizens were subjected to the same process. The citizens of every country submit to everything at the hands of their own Government which it thinks necessary to its safety, either because they acquiesce or because they have no remedy. But foreigners have a remedy, as Mr. Marcy says, against acts of oppression or deprivation of property, and it consists in an appeal to their own Government to procure them a trial by proof, and acquittal in case the proof is not forthcoming.

The British Government, in short, would be entirely within its right in passing laws of the most stringent severity against "no-rent" preaching, or the intimidation of landlords or tenants, against discouraging people from resorting to the Land Courts, against being out after dark, against possessing arms, against wearing a green coat, against speaking disrespectfully of the Ministry, or against the promotion of Irish discontent by any overt act whatsoever; and an American citizen sojourning voluntarily in Ireland would have

no right to complain. But the minute he is put in jail on an accusation of violating these laws he has a right to demand, if need be through his Government, that the nature of the accusation and the evidence on which it is based shall be produced before a tribunal competent to order his release in case the charge against him is not substantiated. There is no such thing known in the usage of Christian nations as the lawful infliction of arbitrary punishments on resident foreigners. However worthless the Irish-Americans whom Mr. Forster has locked up may be, or however desirable it may be that they should be in jail somewhere, there is nothing in their case, or in the nature of the troubles with which the English Government is now contending in Ireland, to warrant us in allowing anything of the kind in the present instance to be established as a precedent.

There is all the less reason for our doing so because such inconveniences as the presence of foreigners in Ireland is now causing the British Government, are clearly chargeable to negligence in not guarding against them in the drafting of the Coercion Act. The Ministry were fully warned by the Fenian troubles in 1866 of the extent to which Irish discontent was fostered, and likely to be fostered, by the presence of Irish-American agents on Irish soil in the anti-rent crisis. It is surprising, therefore, and not very excusable, that there should have been no special provision made for them in the Act. There is in the history of British legislation plenty of precedent for disposing of suspected or troublesome aliens by simple expulsion from British soil. In fact, it is in this way that aliens whose presence was considered dangerous, but who could not be convicted before the courts of any definite offence, have always hitherto been got rid of, and there is no way less open to objection. It may, of course, be a great hardship and injury to a foreigner to be thrust forth from a country in which he is resident, on mere suspicion or for reasons of state; but it is something of which his Government cannot complain, especially if the natives are at the same time exposed to arbitrary imprisonment, because the right to exclude foreigners from coming into a country, or to eject them from it if their presence is considered dangerous, is one of the fundamental natural rights of which no community can be divested by any usage however prolonged. The British Parliament armed the Executive with the power of expelling aliens from 1793 down to 1826. In 1848, when the foreign refugees of that year were thought likely to make trouble, it gave the Cabinet the same power again for a short time, though no use was made of it. The Coercion Act ought to have contained a renewal of it as regards Ireland, if the Ministry wished to avoid diplomatic complications with this country. Had it done so, and were the Irish-American suspects now punished by being carried on board a steamer at Queenstown, with a ticket for New York, nobody would have a right to complain, and nobody would complain except those Irish-American publicists on this side of the water who hold that an Irishman's "papers" entitle him to American protection while actively and openly engaged on British soil in trying to overturn the British Government.

CHARLES DARWIN.

THE death of Mr. Darwin on Thursday of last week cannot be called either sudden or premature, as we ordinarily use such expressions, because his health was known to have been for some time feeble, and not only had he more than completed his three-score-and-ten years but his life had been rich in achievement, and crowned with success such as has seldom been vouchsafed to mortal man. The news of his death must, nevertheless, have impressed every one with a sense of sudden bereavement, for the world never gets ready to lose such a man; and when we consider how fresh Mr. Darwin's mind was, and how much more he would have been sure to do if he could have lived to the age of Hobbes or Fontenelle, we must really characterize his death as premature. The great book of which the 'Origin of Species' was designed as a preliminary sketch, he had indeed given up all thought of writing, because so much had been accomplished by the preliminary sketch that further work upon the general theory might well be left to other hands, the whole scientific world having become, to a great extent, Mr. Darwin's collaborators. But during the last years of his life Mr. Darwin has published several monographs of the highest value and interest, summing up the results of half a century of patient observation and sagacious reflection upon sundry obscure but important points in botany and vegetable physiology, and there is no reason for supposing that he had as yet begun to exhaust this treasure-house of rich experiences. On the contrary, it seems quite likely that he may have left behind numerous notes and fragments, from which valuable posthumous papers may be edited.

The career of Mr. Darwin possesses the interest that belongs to a complete and well-rounded tale. Like his great predecessor and ally, Sir Charles Lyell, he was never obliged to contend with pecuniary anxieties or to engage in any bread-winning occupation, but he was able to devote his whole life with a single mind to the pursuit of scientific truth. It therefore became possible for him to furnish an admirable illustration of Buffon's definition of a great life, "*une pensée de la jeunesse réalisée dans l'âge mûr.*" After taking his Master's degree at Cambridge, in 1831, at the age of twenty-two, he set out in the ship *Beagle* on an exploring voyage around the world, accompanying the expedition voluntarily as naturalist. In the course of this voyage Mr. Darwin was struck by the peculiar relations of the floras and faunas of the Galapagos Islands to one another and to the flora and fauna of the South American Continent, and these facts set him to speculating as to the possibility of an actual kinship among these organisms—a question which involved the whole problem of the origin of species by "descent with modifications." The most considerable part of Mr. Darwin's life-work was comprised in the solution of the problems thus early suggested by the study of the Galapagos Islands. But a long time was to elapse before the world was to hear, either of the problems or of the solution. After his return to England in 1836, Mr. Darwin was for some time occupied with publications describing the scientific results of the expedition, in which he was assisted by Owen, Waterhouse, Bell, Hooker, and other eminent naturalists. In the series of volumes which appeared under his direction between 1840 and 1846, three were by Mr. Darwin's own hand—the 'Geological Observations on South America,' the work on 'Volcanic Islands,' and especially the treatise on 'Coral Reefs,' in which the true theory of the formation of the reefs was for the first time propounded, and in which new light was thrown upon areas of subsidence and of ele-

vation in all parts of the globe. In 1851-52 Mr. Darwin published a 'Monograph of the Cirripedia,' and at about the same time monographs of the fossil *balanidae*, *verruccidae*, and pedunculated cirripeds of Great Britain. In 1853 he received the royal medal from the Royal Society, and in 1859 the Wollaston medal from the Geological Society, and by this time his name had already come to be ranked with those of the most distinguished living naturalists, so that when the 'Origin of Species' was published it at once attracted attention by reason of the eminence of its author, even before its transcendent merits had had time to become known.

A quarter of a century had now elapsed since Mr. Darwin had turned his attention to the problem of the origin of species in connection with the facts of geographical distribution and geological succession. Fifteen years had passed away since he had written out, without publishing, a brief sketch of some of the principal points of the theory which has since become so famous. How much longer this silence might have lasted, had not an unforeseen circumstance come in to break it, one cannot say; but no doubt it would have lasted some time longer, for Mr. Darwin did not wish to publish his views until he had thoroughly considered all the leading facts and arguments which might be regarded as bearing upon them, and it is quite evident that when he wrote the 'Origin of Species' he did not realize the wonderful maturity which his argument had attained, or the overwhelming cogency with which he was then presenting it. It was quite characteristic of him to have made so many allowances for the inevitable incompleteness of his work, when judged by a standard of absolute perfection, as to render himself incapable for the time being of appreciating its real magnitude. In writing the 'Origin of Species,' he regarded it as a preliminary outline of his theory, which would serve to prevent his being forestalled by others in the announcement of it, and he made frequent allusion to the larger and more elaborate treatise by which he should presently follow up the exposition. There can be no doubt that Mr. Darwin was surprised at the great fame which his book instantly won, and at the quickness with which it carried conviction to the minds of nearly all men living whose opinions on the subject were worth the trouble of influencing. The success of his theory was instantaneous and complete; and before ten years more had passed by, so many able men had become expounders and illustrators of the doctrine of natural selection that it no longer seemed necessary to write the larger and more elaborate treatise. The learned work on the 'Variation of Animals and Plants under Domestication,' which appeared in 1868, in two octavo volumes, formed the first instalment of this long-projected treatise. The second part was to have treated of the variation of animals and plants through natural selection, and a third part would have dealt with the phenomena of morphology, of classification, and of distribution in space and time. But these second and third parts were never published.

The circumstance which caused Mr. Darwin to publish the 'Origin of Species' in 1859 served, no less than the extraordinary success of his book, to show how ripe the world had become for the publication of such views. In 1858 Mr. Wallace, who was engaged in studying the natural history of the Malay Archipelago, sent to Mr. Darwin a paper in which he sketched the outlines of a theory identical with that upon which Mr. Darwin had so long been at work. Coincidences of this sort have not been uncommon in the history of scientific inquiry; nor is it surprising that they should occur now and then, when we reflect that a great and pregnant discov-

ery must always have close relations with some question which many of the foremost minds in the world are busy in thinking about. It was so with the discovery of the differential calculus, with the interpretation of the Egyptian hieroglyphics; and to a considerable extent it was so with the introduction of the new chemistry, with the discovery of the equivalence of heat and motion, and with spectrum analysis. It was peculiarly so with the doctrine of the origin of species through natural selection. The belief that all species have originated through derivation from other species, and not through special creation, had been held by a certain portion of the scientific world ever since the time of Mr. Darwin's famous grandfather, who was one of its earliest and most conspicuous advocates. Even those naturalists who did not hold this belief cannot in general be said to have held any antagonistic belief, inasmuch as the so-called "doctrine of special creations" is not a positive doctrine at all, but a mere confession of ignorance, and was so regarded by scientific naturalists before 1859. The truth is, that before the publication of the 'Origin of Species' there was no opinion whatever current respecting the subject that deserved to be called a scientific hypothesis. That the higher forms of life must have come by some process of development from simpler forms was in itself a sensible—perhaps the only sensible—view to take of the subject; but there is nothing properly scientific in a vague general opinion of this sort. A scientific hypothesis must allege a true cause whereby to account for a group of phenomena. Before 1859 no one had suggested a true cause for the origination of new species, but the problem was one over which every naturalist had puzzled since the beginning of the century. Hence the completeness and swiftness of Mr. Darwin's success. But Mr. Darwin's originality was as complete as his success, and it embraced the entire scientific conception of the development theory. He did even more than allege a *vera causa* in natural selection. He was the first to marshal the arguments from classification, embryology, morphology, and distribution, and thus fairly to establish the fact that there has been a derivation of higher forms from lower; and he was also the first to point out the *modus operandi* of the change. The first of these achievements by itself would have entitled him to associate his name with the development theory, but by the second the triumph of the theory was practically assured.

It is a remarkable illustration of the thoroughness with which Mr. Darwin considered his great theory before publishing an account of it that, during the twenty-three years which have elapsed since 1859, although a vast literature of controversy has come into existence and "Darwinism" has formed one of the chief subjects of discussion in all the civilized countries of the world, no one as yet seems to have discovered any argument against the theory of natural selection which Mr. Darwin had not himself already foreseen and considered in the first edition of the 'Origin of Species.' In 1871, Mr. St. George Mivart published a book which made a slight sensation for a few weeks, and which deserves notice as an attack upon the Darwinian theory couched in the language of scientific argument rather than in that of general philosophy or theology or aesthetics; yet all Mr. Mivart's serious objections were taken from Mr. Darwin's own pages and freshly urged with singular want of candor.

After an interval of twelve years Mr. Darwin followed up the first announcement of his general views with his treatise on the 'Descent of Man.' If his earlier book was preëminent for the skill with which it grouped great masses of

facts in their bearings upon a few general propositions relating to the whole organic world, the later treatise is no less remarkable for the skill with which it weighs great numbers of different and often heterogeneous considerations in their bearings upon a single enormously complex group of phenomena. Mr. Darwin's latest books belong to a period in which, having lived to witness the complete success of his great work, he has employed his time in recording the results of his researches on many subsidiary points of no little interest and importance. The treatises on 'Insectivorous Plants,' on 'Cross and Self-Fertilization,' on the 'Different Forms of Flowers,' and on the 'Formation of Vegetable Mould,' should be read as models of sound scientific method, by every one who cares to learn what scientific method is.

There can be little doubt that Mr. Darwin's name will go down in history as that of the greatest scientific inquirer and the most pregnant scientific thinker that has lived since Newton. Since the beginnings of modern learning, probably no single idea has wrought upon the minds of men with such rich and manifold results as the idea of "natural selection"; and it is evident that what we have already seen is but an earnest of vastly more that is to come.

MATERNA AND PATTI

FRAU MATERNA, the original *Brünnhilde* of the Wagner festival at Bayreuth, arrived at this port on Saturday. It may be considered perhaps a prophetic and certainly a suggestive coincidence that the most gifted interpreter of modern German music should have embarked for this country only a few days after the leading vocalist of the Italian school had left us. Americans will have an opportunity of comparing within a few weeks the vocal styles of the greatest living lyric and the greatest living dramatic soprano. Unfortunately neither of the two will have been heard under the most favorable circumstances, Mme. Patti having appeared only as a concert-singer in costume—since her operatic company was a mere delusion and snare—and Frau Materna, who is almost as great an actress as she is a vocalist, being engaged only for the concerts at the May Festivals in New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago, where, it is true, she will appear amid the most artistic surroundings, but under somewhat unfavorable acoustic conditions. Were operatic affairs in New York on the same plane of excellence as concert matters, both of these great vocalists might have been heard in their proper sphere; but as this is not the case, we must feel grateful for an opportunity of comparing at least their purely vocal endowments and styles. Among other things, the prevalent erroneous opinion will be corrected that the Italian method of singing is the only correct and natural method, and that every serious deviation from it results in a sacrifice of beauty of tone and premature ruin of the voice. For singing with Italian words or without any words at all (*solfeggio*) the Italian method is doubtless preferable to any other. But it is equally certain that for the execution of the dramatic and declamatory music of modern German composers—the songs of Schubert, Schumann, Franz, and the music-dramas of Wagner—a totally different vocal style is essential, which in itself is just as natural and as little injurious to the vocal chords as the Italian style. Frau Materna will show by her interpretation of the Wagnerian selections that have been made for the May-Festival concerts that Wagner's latest vocal style does not consist of a series of jarring, broken intervals, but is flowing, melodious, and highly impressive because it is simply

an artistic elaboration of the natural emotional cadences of the human voice in speech.

Opinions, of course, will always differ to some extent as to which of these two styles or schools is the more attractive—whether Mme. Patti or Frau Materna is the high-priest of the true religion. Roughly speaking, musicians have for centuries been divided into two great parties, the lovers of the lyric and the lovers of the dramatic style. To the former a naked melody, with the merest shadow of an harmonic accompaniment, and no special regard for the meaning of the words to which it is set, is the highest type of musical beauty. The other party insists that the melody should only be one (not too tyrannically prominent) part of a complicated harmonic structure, because only harmony, when united with melody, can give full and definite expression to our emotions by means of the alternation of major and minor moods, concords and discords, modulations, and gay or sombre instrumental colors. Of course these remarks refer particularly to operatic music. On the concert stage, or in the drawing-room, lyric music has its proper place, but on the operatic stage it is as inappropriate as lyric poetry is on the dramatic stage. The question why nevertheless lyric melody has so long kept its place on the stage is easy to answer. Beginners in musical education first learn to appreciate melody (or tune) because it is easy to follow, and only later do they begin to understand harmony. In its highest development harmony is simply a *bundle of melodies*, so that in listening to it we may hear three or four melodies at the same time instead of merely one. To unravel these requires a mental effort, and this the fashionable habitués of opera are generally unwilling to make. As a German critic correctly observes, the exclusive devotion of the Italians to solo melody is largely due to their southern mental indolence.

But the Italians themselves have at last become tired of their simple lyric operas, and are importing harmonic, dramatic, and orchestral treasures from Germany by wholesale, as witness Verdi's "Aida," Boito's "Mefistofele," and the Liszt cultus at Rome. Lyric operas in abundance are still produced in Italy every year by minor composers, but they invariably result in a fiasco. Those who admire the florid singing in which Mme. Patti excels must, therefore, admit that the outlook for their cause is not bright, since the leading Italian composers themselves have ceased to write the old-fashioned ornamental arias, while in other countries the florid style has long since been abandoned and Italian opera become comparatively neglected. At Dresden, for instance, only one Italian opera was sung during the whole month of February. Vienna had a brief season of Italian opera last year, but it did not prove sufficiently remunerative to be repeated this year. At Berlin, an Italian company appeared this winter which was praised by all the critics, but was soon obliged to leave for want of support. In Paris, Meyerbeer and a few French composers occupy the stage; in London, doubts have been expressed whether even a consolidation of the present companies and the presence of several leading *prime donne* would improve the financial situation of the managers; and even in America, where crowds go to see a great vocalist for the same reason that they go to see Jumbo or Oscar Wilde, lyric opera is not a paying business. In a word, Italian opera is dead, and it is time to look about us for a substitute.

It is from this point of view that we have applied the word "prophetic" to the arrival of Frau Materna so soon after the departure of Mme. Patti. In England, where all the critics, liberal and conservative, have already united their voices in a dirge on Italian opera, Carl Rosa has been

successful with English opera or German opera in English, and there can be little doubt of a successful issue of the several series of modern German operatic performances which are to be given in London this spring. It is to be hoped, therefore, that New York will in this thing, as in so many others, follow the lead of London, and that an epoch of true art and good music will follow that of virtuosity on our stage. Our terms are carefully chosen. The difference between lyric opera and dramatic opera is precisely the difference between virtuosity and art. The arias of Donizetti, Bellini, and Rossini are, with some admirable exceptions, merely written with the view of giving a singer an opportunity of displaying his or her perfection of vocal technique. They are unhealthy and rank hothouse flowers, reared for the luxurious indulgence of fashionable society, whereas the melodies of Mozart, Gluck, Weber, Wagner, Rubinstein, and, we may add, Verdi and the best of the French composers, have their root in the healthy soil in which the songs and dance-rhythms of the people and the old Italian church music grew.

Nothing could be more amusing, therefore, than the charge of narrow-mindedness and prejudice which is often brought forward against the admirers of the "advanced school." A man can be a perfectly fair and liberal critic and yet refuse to admire that which constantly violates all the laws of aesthetic propriety, as Italian lyric opera does. In fact, it is the duty of a conscientious critic to oppose such an aesthetic monstrosity, to point out to the public that complacent enjoyment of such a nondescript is evidence of an uncultivated taste, and that an artist who is great only in such a sphere is not an artist of the highest rank. This is the case with Mme. Patti. Her repertory, which once embraced over thirty operas, included only one classic opera ("Don Giovanni"), and in that she did not appear to advantage. Even a semi-classic opera like Gounod's "Faust" is beyond her sphere. She is always Mme. Patti, and never succeeds in throwing herself into her part so completely as to identify herself with it. She always compels you to notice the sensuous beauty of her naked voice, and all other considerations regarding the opera must disappear before the tyrannic glory and technical perfection of that voice. This is virtuosity, not art; for art is not selfish. The greater artist is she whose individuality disappears in the work; and this is the case with Materna. Her voice is of great compass, sonorous quality, absolute purity, great flexibility, unequalled power, amazing endurance, and great emotional range and intensity. She could not sing the florid music of Patti any more than Patti could sing her dramatic parts, for the dramatic and lyric styles are never combined in the same person, being mutually exclusive. But she will do what Patti cannot do—make the audience feel that they hear, not Materna, but *Brünnhilde* or *Ortrud* themselves; and this is the perfection of art. In her own sphere Patti is as good as Materna; but that sphere is not so high as Materna's, and therefore Materna is the greater artist of the two. But in justice to Patti, it must be added that she is above most virtuosos of her class in so far as she avoids all display which is not prescribed in her part, such as abnormally sustained high and low notes, interminable trills, arbitrary tempo, and explosive final notes.

THE PROBLEM OF EUROPEAN CONTROL IN EGYPT.

ALEXANDRIA, March 20, 1882.

ALEXANDRIA during the last week or two has been in a rather abnormal condition of activity—that is, of the sort of superficial activity of which, in the absence of some casual outburst of

antipathy between Jews and Greeks, it is alone capable. The two sons of the Prince of Wales have been visiting Cairo and Upper Egypt, and the ship *Bacchante*, to which they are attached, has been in the Alexandrian harbor, together with its companion ship, the *Iris*. On their passing through the town here on Friday last, the 24th, the Princes gave the prizes at the Athletic Sports.

The state of politics in Egypt is just now so uncertain from day to day, and rumors of the most extreme contingencies succeed one another so rapidly, that the presence of British men-of-war in the harbor is regarded with more than usual complacency. It seems quite an open question with everybody whether there is anything which, with decent regard for truth, can be called a National Party; and whether, even if there is such a party, the influence of the Army, and especially of Arabi Bey, is not so predominant as to render all mere political influences of insignificant account. I have already, in former letters, had occasion to describe the main streams of influence which are held to be operating here. The issue is, however, gradually narrowing itself to the question whether the Assembly of Notables can and will control the Army, and so prove itself to be a genuine constitutional factor, or whether a military despotism, under whatever specious form, will not carry all before it. The battle has been fought once over the question of the existence of Sherif Pasha's Ministry, which may be said on the whole to have supported in critical moments the cause of true constitutional reform, as opposed to military ascendancy. The battle was lost for the Constitution and gained for the soldiers. The new Government is in every sense a Government of war: the Prime Minister is the late Minister of War; the new Minister of War is the potent Arabi Bey himself; and the first principles of the new programme are that "the Budget," which here means the application of the resources of the state to the increase and better pay of the Army, shall be in the hands of the puppets of the Army, that is, the seventy-five members of the Chamber of Notables. As things are at present, the new Constitution excludes from discussion in the Chamber the European debt and all existing international obligations. But this clause in the Constitution, I am told, through the highest European authorities in Cairo, is so unpopular in military quarters that it may not long hold its place.

But even if a new Egyptian Government, or any future Government, hesitates to innovate in a manner which would call forth instant European intervention, the new Budget clause is sufficient of itself to imperil the most salutary of existing Egyptian institutions. The Budget clause has the effect of committing the preparation of the year's financial scheme to a commission formed partly from members of the Chamber and partly from the Ministry of the day. To an American or European eye this seems a very moderate and innocent proposal, and in fact it falls infinitely short of the amount of popular control over the national finances which is enjoyed in every country with a show of constitutional government. The real purport of the change can only be understood by recurring to the facts of Egyptian history during the last eight years. It was by nothing else than by European intervention that first in 1876 and then in 1879 the deplorable condition of Egyptian finance and Egyptian administration in all its departments even began to be relieved. In the course of applying this relief it was found that the national indebtedness, amounting to ninety millions of pounds sterling, was inextricably intertwined with the oppression and inhuman treatment of the population. The same Com-

mission of Inquiry, appointed in 1878, representing all the leading European states, after exploring the innumerable defects in Egyptian finance, as brought about by the reckless prodigality of Ismail Pasha, dwelt in their report on the crushing methods of collecting taxes, on the iniquitous system of forced labor, which, as then exercised, was only another name for slavery, and on the hardships resulting from the prevailing mode of military conscription. They summed up the whole by reporting that no efficient remedy could be found for every one of these evils in the aggregate without putting a stop once for all to the irresponsible absolutism of the Khedive. This was the first and essential step, and, indeed, in all countries, this step is the indispensable condition for the establishment of anything like constitutional government. It happens usually that the restriction of monarchical absolutism grows out of the simultaneous and progressive advance of popular institutions. In Egypt, however, there were no materials—and, indeed, are not now—for true representative institutions. The only semblance of such is the Chamber of Notables, a body which was occasionally assembled by Ismail himself in his worst days for the purpose of obtaining the personal acquiescence of its members in taxation which mainly affected themselves. They were and are chosen from pashas and rich landed proprietors, usually nominated by Government agents, and with only an outside pretence of electoral forms. In the deeply depressed state of popular knowledge and information, nothing more is at present possible.

The result was that if financial reform meant administrative revolution, and neither the one nor the other could advance a step without Ismail's irresponsible despotism being put an end to, some yet untried force must be applied from without. This force has been found hitherto in a series of special institutions in the creation and support of which the English and French Governments have closely coöperated. Such institutions are the European commissions for the management of the public lands or Daira estates, mortgaged for a certain portion of the national debt. Another institution is the Commission of Liquidation, which is mainly concerned with the more mechanical operations of collecting and receiving the revenue applicable to the payment of the debt, and handing it over to the authorized representatives of the creditors. The most important of these international constitutional checks is what is known as the Control, which, on the appointment of the present Khedive in place of his father in 1879, succeeded to the system of nominating an English and a French member of the Egyptian Ministry. The Controllers, as thus appointed by France and England, on behalf of all the Powers interested, had the right of attending the meetings of the Cabinet, of taking part in all discussions, of receiving formal notice of every administrative act, and of objecting on presumably financial grounds to any measure which might conceivably, in one way or another, affect the revenue. The result of such intermixture in the current administration necessarily was that the Controllers had often much to say on matters which only indirectly were of strictly financial concern. Indeed, of late the Italian organs in this town have made it their main charge against the Controllers, and especially against M. de Blignières, the French Controller, who has just resigned, that they gradually usurped political functions with which they had nothing to do. There is no doubt, too, that it has been found, especially last year, when Baron de Ring represented France as Consul-General, that there was an opening for conflict of views and action between the financial and diplomatic representa-

tives of France or England. It has been fortunate, however, that M. de Blignières and Sir Auckland Colvin, the English Controller, themselves have not only worked together with conspicuous harmony, but, in concert with Sir Edward Malet, have reduced these hypothetical difficulties to an almost microscopic point. It was said at first that M. de Blignières's successor was to submit himself in all respects to the French Consul-General. This announcement was looked upon with rejoicing here by the European opponents of France and England, as likely to reduce the influence of the French Controller to a cipher and to be the beginning of the end of the Control altogether. But it seems that there was a mistake about this, and that all that was meant was that the new Controller was directed generally to coöperate harmoniously with the diplomatic representative of France. Indeed, it has been properly noticed that it would have been an anomaly for the Controller, who is a paid Egyptian official and servant of the Khedive, to be subject at every moment to a diplomatic agent who represents nothing but his own country.

The real justification of the apparent encroachment of the Controllers on the domain of politics proper is found in the report of the Commission of Inquiry above alluded to. In Egypt more than any other country, except perhaps other parts of the Ottoman Empire, good government and good finance are indissolubly welded together—the usual form of combination, however, being the less happy union of bad government and bad finance. The pressing question now is whether, in a spurious aspiration for that which is as yet impossible, the only chance of the final reconstitution of Egypt shall be abandoned, and all the work of the last four or five years be undone, through the treasonable conspiracy of military adventurers making a disloyal use of the honored title "Nationality"; or whether the influence of Europe will be found strong and wise enough to check what may perhaps prove only a political eccentricity without subjecting the country to foreign domination of the sternest kind. A.

Notes.

MR. F. GUTEKUNT, Philadelphia, sends us an extraordinarily fine photographic likeness of the poet Longfellow, which we can but prefer to every other presentment of him in his latest aspect that we have seen. It is half life-size, and mounted on a stiff pasteboard panel, with a neat bevel of gilt.

The April *Portfolio* (J. W. Bouton) gives two specimens of the woodcut illustrations for a sumptuous edition of 'Evangeline' just published in England by Cassell & Co. The artist is Mr. F. Dicksee, and the scale of some of his designs requires a full page of the *Portfolio*.

The forthcoming new edition of Mr. T. W. Higginson's 'Young Folks' History of the United States,' now in press, will have an additional chapter, bringing it down to the accession of President Arthur. The proposed uniform edition of the same author's writings will include a revised edition of his 'Epictetus,' which has for ten years been out of print and hard to get.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s announcements embrace Mr. George P. Lathrop's new novel, 'An Echo of Passion'; the first English translation of Heine's 'Philosophy and Religion in Germany'; 'Notable Thoughts about Women,' by M. M. Ballou; a new work on the Gypsies, by Charles G. Leland; Mr. Henry James, jr.'s 'Roderick Hudson,' with the author's revision; and new editions of Parton's 'Life of Horace Greeley.'

and 'General Butler at New Orleans,' uniform with his 'Life of Voltaire.'

From the same firm we have the prospectus and specimen pages of Professor Francis J. Child's 'English and Scottish Popular Ballads,' already announced by us as begun to be put to press. This work will bring together for the first time something like the complete body of ballads of the countries named in the title, with absolute integrity of text, and with such a collation of independent versions as has never before been undertaken on so large a scale. "Each ballad will have a proper preface, and in the case of those ballads which the English have in common with other nations, an account will be given of related traditions. The work will have a general introduction, full indexes, and a careful glossary." It will be issued by subscription, in eight parts, at five dollars each; and only a thousand copies of this *édition de luxe* will be printed. Professor Child's qualifications for this infinitely laborious and scholarly task it would be superfluous to descant upon. His purpose, steadfastly adhered to for a quarter of a century, at last bears fruit which will do honor to American literature.

Henry Holt & Co. publish immediately 'On Horseback, in the School, and on the Road,' a reprint in one volume of the London editions of Mr. Edward L. Anderson's 'How to Ride' and 'System of School-training for Horses.'

The concluding volume of the coöperative work, 'The Public Service of the State of New York during the Administration of Alonzo B. Cornell,' edited by Dr. Paul B. Chadbourne, and published by J. R. Osgood & Co., with a wealth of heliotype illustration, is nearly ready to appear. In intention this unique composition is what might be called an instantaneous photograph of the machinery of a State government. It is both historical for the grand features, and biographical as regards the personnel of the present administration.

The first volume of the *Century* magazine rejoices in a truly splendid cover of black and old gold, with a decoration outside and in, derived from Mr. Vedder's monthly series of designs, but glorified by Mr. G. F. Babb's decorative genius. It is needless to rehearse the contents of the six months (November, 1881—April, 1882). Of all the portraits—and these include George Eliot, Matthew Arnold, Fortuny, Garfield, etc.—that of Thiers seems to us the most masterful and most memorable.

Mr. Robert Browning's admirers in this country should not rest easy until they procure the 'Bibliography of Robert Browning,' edited by Mr. F. J. Furnivall for the new Browning Society (Trübner & Co.). It opens with a reprint of Browning's introductory essay on Shelley prefixed to Moxon's edition of spurious letters attributed to that poet (1852), and then contains a copious bibliography, with endless footnotes, and an appendix impulsively got together as a guide to the various 'Selections' from Browning's poems, his changes in certain of them, and the critical notices which have appeared from 1833 to date. The "trial list" of these last is defective in American references, in spite of several postscripts. Mr. Furnivall's personality and the characteristics of English hero-worshippers make this volume amusing as well as valuable. The second edition is before us.

A late if not the latest addition to Bohn's Standard Library (London: George Bell & Sons) is the happy thought entitled 'Classic Tales,' and comprising "Rasselas," "The Vicar of Wakefield," "Gulliver's Travels," and the "Sentimental Journey." This reprint, besides the merit of being between a single pair of covers, also possesses that of adherence to the best editions—in general the earliest corrected ones; and it is

not expurgated. The print of these 606 pages is surprisingly large and clear. It could be wished that other volumes might illustrate still further the wonderful variety and richness of English eighteenth-century fiction.

The notable increase in the employment of etching as a mode of illustration, in recent years, prepares one for the innovation in the engraved series of portraits which have been a distinguishing feature of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*. The April number contains an etched portrait of the late Samuel Osgood, of this city, with the usual biographical sketch. Lovers of puzzles will find in the same number a test of their acuteness in deciphering a seventeenth-century signature, the name of one of the elder Winthrop's correspondents, and from his endorsement probably Ashby or Ashley, while Colonel Chester and several English experts make it Slainey, Slayney, or Slaney.

Parts 29 and 30 of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas' (B. Westermann & Co.) gather up those parts of the earth which offer the greatest difficulty to cartography, either, as in the case of South America, from a lack of authentic surveys, or, as in the case of Africa, from the incessant additions to our knowledge in consequence of explorations. In both these continents, moreover, disturbances of boundaries by wars have taken place since the last edition. Africa is presented in two maps on the same scale (1:12,500,000), one showing the northeastern portion, together with Arabia; the other, the entire extent south of the equator. Of South America we have Brazil from Bahia to the Uruguay border, and so much of the western coast as embraces all of Peru and Bolivia, and about half of Chili and the Argentine Confederation. In conformity with recent events, Bolivia is shut out from the sea; but Peru retains while yet she may the province of Tarapaca. Several South American ports are delineated in the ocean space of sheet No. 95. The southern sheet of Africa exhibits in a surprising manner the growth of settlement in the land of Livingstone. The two remaining instalments of this atlas are being pushed forward as rapidly as possible.

F. W. Christern has recently received a specimen number of the latest French theatrical serial. It is an intermittent illustrated publication called 'Les Premières Illustrées,' and is to appear shortly after the first performance of every successful play. There are eight pages of text adorned with neat little drawings of the principal scenes and actors, and there is an inserted portrait in heliogravure. The sketches are furnished by M. Paul Destez and the letterpress by M. Raoul Toché. The first number is devoted to "Lili," a three-act vaudeville, in which Mme. Judic plays the chief parts—appearing in the final scenes as her own granddaughter. There is an illustrated cover on which one may recognize the faces of MM. Dumas, Sardou, Sarcey, and J. L. Géroime.

—The nineteenth volume of Frederick Martin's annual 'Statesman's Year-Book,' for 1882, comes to us from Macmillan & Co. Its title should not cause its general usefulness to be misapprehended. Journalists know the worth of it to them, and every writer or speaker on matters political or politico-economical should have occasion to refer to it. It would be a capital preliminary study for visiting statesmen, say like Mr. Voorhees, before going abroad. Per contra, we find it defective as a guide to Englishmen desiring to come to this country, especially as settlers. In regard to the public lands of the United States, something is said of the mode of survey, of school lands, land offices, land titles, and of land sales, but not a syllable concerning *homestead* lands; yet the sales of public land

have long been a bagatelle compared to the amount "homesteaded." During five years ending with 1879 the homestead acreage was 23,000,000, and that sold was but little over 3,500,000. In the year ending June, 1879, the acres sold were 622,573; those taken up either as homesteads or by timber culture (which is a sort of homestead variation) were 8,026,684 acres—thirteenfold more. The silence of the 'Year-Book' in relation to homesteads is the more noticeable because all the facts about them are to be found in books of reference which appear on its own list. If Mr. Martin were a German official, his ignoring half a million American homesteaders would be thought to betray a desire to discourage emigration. As things are, he might excuse himself by telling us that the word "homesteader" is wanting in both Webster and Worcester (though "home-ruler" is found in the latter); and that neither of those lexicographers gives any place to that meaning of the word "homestead" which is predominant in more than half of the United States, and is a genuine and very creditable Americanism.

—Trübner & Co., London, send us the second edition of their important 'Catalogue of Dictionaries and Grammars of the Principal Languages and Dialects of the World.' The original edition appeared ten years ago; the present contains about three times as many titles and pages, and has an index filling more than four octavo pages in triple column, and referring to nearly 3,000 works. The publishers' aim has been to enumerate "approved grammars and dictionaries that can be obtained without difficulty," and, in fact, the larger part of these can be found in the stock of the Messrs. Trübner, and procured for the prices affixed. In certain aspects it may be regarded rather as a bookseller's catalogue than as a bibliography, as when we see only the third edition (1859; by error called the second, in the Catalogue) of Bartlett's 'Dictionary of Americanisms' recorded. Here the consulter misses the information that a fourth edition appeared in 1878, and of course can be obtained with even less difficulty. The omission of Prof. Schele de Vere's 'Americanisms,' though the work is not out of print, might be accounted for on the ground that it was not "approved" by the compiler. But we imagine that this epithet is somewhat loosely applied, and it were much to be desired that in a reissue of this catalogue its great and obvious utility to scholars should be enhanced by some indication, however brief, of the relative value of the works named in it. As it is, there is no other criterion except the date and the price. Apropos of dates, it seems odd that two of the late Dr. John Pickering's respectable contributions to American philology, both now out of print, should still be obtainable without difficulty—namely, his 'Vocabulary of Words and Phrases peculiar to the United States' (edition of 1816), and his 'Remarks on the Indian Languages of North America' (1836), in a Leipzig translation—assigned by the editor, by the way, to 1834. The most unaccountable omission that we have observed is that of Worcester under English Dictionaries. Neither is any American English grammar recognized. Otherwise, thanks in some degree to the various Indian dialects, American lexicography cuts as much of a figure as could be expected. Grammar and dictionary together, the range is from Gibbs's 'Chinook Jargon' to Leland's 'English Gypsies and their Language'; or from Haldeman's (not double *n*, as on p. 116) 'Pennsylvania Dutch,' and Zeisberger's 'Language of the Lenni-Lenape,' to Whitney's 'Sanskrit Grammar'; or again, from Matthews's 'Hidatsa Grammar and Dictionary' to March's 'Anglo-Saxon Grammar, and Cor-

son's 'Handbook,' and Van Name's 'Contributions to Creole Grammar.' Moreover, we suspect that some of the Hawaiian vocabularies and grammars are of American origin.

—In answering Mme. Ragozin's Russian view of the Jewish question, Miss Lazarus, in the *May Century*, seems to have been embarrassed by the very absurdity of her opponent's theory. Her reply, though dwelling on the obvious weaknesses of Mme. Ragozin's representations, is hardly skilful in depriving them of the weight which lies primarily, if not wholly, in their cleverness. Besides this, it would certainly be more profitable to have the debate between two Russians whose acquaintance with the facts was not at second hand. The first instalment of Carlyle's "Reminiscences of my Irish Journey"—drawn up after his return, in October, 1849, from his letters to his wife and other memoranda—is dreary reading; jerky and fragmentary as usual, and characteristic of the British grumbling tourist. His sea-voyage was improved in making caricatures of his fellow-passengers—"and were I a painter, I could draw them," he says. Some portions sound almost like a travesty on Alfred Jingle. Mr. Grant White's "Opera in New York" comes down to Mme. Sontag, and consequently to the year 1854. No one who had the good fortune to see her, will dispute this writer's dictum that "in person she was . . . probably the most lady-like prima donna that ever trod the stage"; nor is the distinction a small one. Mr. Stedman adds one more study of contemporary poets to his growing list, taking Mr. Lowell for his subject, and treating him with the same frankness and tact which have marked the previous essays. We should, for its penetrating judgments, attach more value and importance to the "Fable for Critics" than Mr. Stedman does, but in other respects we have found little ground of difference with him. Mr. Lowell's prose is praised heartily, as it deserves. A little poem, "Estrangement," in three stanzas, and a masterly engraving by Kruell from an exceptionally good portrait, speak for themselves of the absent Minister. The poem needs to be read slowly to take in its elaborate imagery, and we can but think that a faulty punctuation has needlessly obscured the sense of the last stanza.

—The annual stated session of the National Academy of Sciences was held in Washington, commencing on Tuesday, the 18th, and ending on Friday, the 21st, of April. The public meetings took place in the lecture hall of the new National Museum building, the business meetings in an adjoining room. The session opened with the President's, Professor W. B. Rogers, annual address, consisting chiefly of biographical notices of a number of deceased American scientists; after which the regular programme for the day was taken up, papers being read by Messrs. Agassiz, Hunt, Cope, Scudder, and Gill. In business meeting on Wednesday, Mr. Silliman presented, on behalf of a committee, a report on the cultivation of sorghum in this country, highly favorable to the present and future of that industry; and during the public sitting of the same day papers were read by Messrs. Rowland, Draper, Mendenhall, Gibbs, Barker, Scudder, and Riley. In private session during the afternoon of Wednesday the Academy proceeded to the election of new members. Although the membership was only ninety-five, there being thus room for five more without reference to the four-fifths rule, only one person—Professor Ira Remsen, of Johns Hopkins University—received the number of votes requisite to election. An amendment to the constitution was adopted, providing that a candidate for membership to the Academy must be a citizen of the United States. On Thursday and Friday the programme of

papers to be read was continued by Messrs. Scudder, Cushing, Wright, Barker, Cope, Peirce, and Langley. The attendance of members was not large, probably not one-third of the Academy being present. Among the social features of the meeting were the reception tendered by the Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, to which the Philosophical, Biological, and Anthropological Societies of Washington were invited to meet the Academy; the reception by the President of the Academy to the members and their families, and the similar one by President Arthur.

—The matter of tests of structural materials, to be made under the direction of the general Government, is acquiring a new interest among engineers and others interested in metallic constructions. In 1875 an act was passed by Congress providing for the appointment of a board to test iron and steel, and appropriating \$75,000 for this purpose. Under the charge of this board, a testing machine of a power and accuracy unrivalled by any other machine in the world was constructed, and is now in use at the arsenal at Watertown, Mass. The board, however, has gone out of existence, and the machine is used principally for such tests as private parties desire to have made at their own expense. During the recent meeting of the American Institute of Mining Engineers held in Washington in February last, a special session was devoted to the discussion of iron and steel as structural materials, and the opinion was generally expressed that a new act ought to be passed authorizing the President to appoint a new commission to take up the unfinished work which the old commission laid down, and thus to secure to the engineering profession of the country at large the valuable knowledge which this testing machine can give. The American Society of Civil Engineers has also passed resolutions relating to this subject, and it is expected that further action will be taken at the annual convention of this society, which is to be held in Washington next May. A more important course of investigation, or one more entirely free from anything like official mismanagement, can hardly be found.

—A very curious coalition is taking place in England. Every one knows how shabbily (in their own opinion) the Spiritualists have been treated by the scientific world. Generally men of science have been scornful, and have refused altogether to investigate. When they did investigate, they have cruelly remained unconvinced, with the exception of Prof. Crookes and a few others. It was to be expected, therefore, that when the Anti-Vivisectionists arose to torment the biologists and physiologists, the Spiritualists would lend them a helping hand; and that is what has happened. Mrs. Algernon Kingsford, M.D., has been allowed to deliver her lecture on "Violationism; or, Sorcery in Science," at a regular meeting of the British National Association of Spiritualists. One wonders whether the allies are united only by a common enmity or by that curious bond of sympathy among the isms which has been noticed in this country, and which makes it probable that any person who is (shall we say?) afflicted with one is, or has been, or is to be, addicted to half a dozen others. Things, however, now are not so simple as they were. Formerly there was the man of common-sense, or the man of science, as the case might be, on the one side, and the lover of isms on the other; and the two bodies were perfectly distinct. That of course could not last, for the progress of civilization, we have been told, is the evolution of the complex. At present there is considerable cross-classification. A number of scientists, for example, think that spiritualism is entitled to "respectful considera-

tion"; at the same time they see the necessity of vivisection; so that their organ, the *Journal of Science*, "profoundly regrets" a step that is hostile as much to the biologists friendly to spiritualism as to those who regard it as jugglery and imposture. Probably the *Journal of Science* will have made its plea in vain. Revenge will be too sweet; and we shall see the whole body of Spiritualists joining the ranks of those who are determined that biology, physiology, and medical discovery shall continue to be a pursuit of knowledge under difficulties.

—The *Review of the Far East* (*Revue de l'Extrême Orient*, Paris: Ernest Leroux) starts on its first voyage richly freighted. Though conducted in French, it admits papers in English; and, as we presume, in other languages. It will contain original contributions, translations, and bibliographical notes and news illustrating the ethnology, languages, religion, art, and literature of Asia, especially that portion dominated by Chinese thought. The editor, M. Henri Cordier, has already made his mark by compiling the 'Bibliotheca Sinica,' a bibliographical dictionary of works relating to the Chinese Empire. Throughout, the *Review* bears the marks of skilful editing, notwithstanding the fact that the poorest matter is put at the front. Léon Metchnikoff, who is best known as the author of a catchpenny scrap-book descriptive of Japan, gives a thin paper on Japanese Sex Statistics. In a series, which promises to be very valuable, on the History of Chinese Studies, we find an excellent budget of notes to serve for the biography of the late Archimandrite Palladius, whose death left a gap not easily filled. Besides an outline of his life there is a good list of his published works. The editor furnishes a number of inedited documents illustrating the history of Christianity in China. Mr. Alexander Wylie, the accurate Sinologue whose removal from China sapped the vigor of the *Missionary Recorder* of Shanghai, contributes a translation into English of a Chinese work of the fifth century on the ethnography of China and the surrounding countries—an example which deserves to be imitated. An account of Cambodia follows. In the appendix are notes on manuscripts in European libraries descriptive of the Chinese Empire; a chapter on "The European Press in China"; the text of the treaty between Russia and China; reviews of recent books on countries of the Far East, and the bibliography of the year 1881 on subjects germane to the *Review*; and Notes and Queries. Altogether, the *Revue de l'Extrême Orient* is a valuable thesaurus for that half of the world which cares to know how the other and larger half lives. If we may judge from this number, the new venture is worthy of the hearty support of libraries and scholars in the United States.

—The spectacular sensationalism of Meyerbeer's "L'Africaine" helped that opera to such a great popular success at the "Academy of Music" that the addition to the repertory of another opera by the same composer followed as an inevitable consequence. "Robert le Diable" was produced on the 19th inst. with some of the best vocalists in Mr. Mapleson's company, and before an audience that completely filled the house. Many of the numbers were liberally applauded, and generally with more discrimination than is shown by the fashionable audiences that occupy the house during the regular season. The lion's share of the applause fell to Miss Emma Juch, who was repeatedly and deservedly recalled. She has not heretofore appeared to as great advantage in any rôle as in that of *Isabella*, the nearest approach to it having been her *Marguerite* in "Les Huguenots." As an actress, she still lacks experience, but her voice

has a clear, powerful ringing quality, which, added to its purity of intonation, made it a pleasure to listen to her execution of her difficult part. It is evident that Meyerbeer is Miss Juch's specialty, and not less so that he is not Mme. Minnie Hauk's. Like everything that this clever vocalist undertakes, her *Alice* showed careful study, intelligent conception, and conscientious execution, but lacked the spirit which pervades the work of a musical artist who feels herself in her proper sphere. "In 'Il Crociato' I still counted him among musicians; in 'Robert le Diable' I began to have my doubts; in 'Les Huguenots' I place him at once among Franconi's circus people." When Schumann wrote these well-known lines he was doubtless impelled by disgust at Meyerbeer's growing *Effecthascherei* in his later works, due to the extreme anxiety to tickle and please the popular ear. It would be more correct, perhaps, to say that the finest musical creation of Meyerbeer's is the duet in the fourth act of "Les Huguenots," but that "Robert" has a greater number of beautiful melodies, original harmonies and modulatory phrases, and refined instrumental coloring than any of his other works. With all its claptrap, there is much in this opera that, if well executed, interests even a refined musician.

STILLMAN'S HORSE IN MOTION.

The Horse in Motion, as shown by Instantaneous Photography. With a Study on Animal Mechanics. By J. D. B. Stillman, A.M., M.D. Executed and published under the auspices of Leland Stanford. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1882. 4to, pp. 127, plates cvii.

WHEN Prof. Marey, of the Collège de France, was engaged in his experimental study of the flight of birds, he expressed his desire for the invention of a *fusil photographique*—that is, an instrument which, being pointed at a flying bird, could, on the pulling of a trigger, secure an instantaneous photograph of the moving object. The employment of instantaneous photography, thus suggested, for the study of animal locomotion has within the last few years become an accomplished fact. To Governor Leland Stanford, of California, belongs the credit of initiating this new method of scientific research, and of thus affording additional proof that a princely employment of wealth may be looked for in republics as well as in monarchies.

Of the inadequacy of the methods heretofore employed in the study of animal locomotion the voluminous literature of the subject affords convincing proof. We find, for instance, that almost every conceivable variety of opinion has been entertained in regard to the comparatively simple question of the order in which the feet of a galloping horse strike the ground. The unaided eye cannot appreciate slight differences in time with accuracy sufficient for the solution of this problem; and even when sight is aided by hearing (which, for this purpose, is a much more accurate sense), the results reached do not have that uniformity which might be expected. Thus, of two recent observers who have studied the gallop by attaching bells of different tones to the different feet of the moving horse, one concludes that the leading foot is the first, and the other that it is the last, to leave the ground as the animal rises into the air.

An accurate notation of the paces of the horse was first obtained by Prof. Marey, who published, some eight years ago, the results secured by the employment of the graphic method of registration. This method consisted in the transmission of pneumatic signals from elastic bulbs attached to the shoes of the horse through rubber tubes to a recording apparatus carried in the

hand of the rider. The delicate apparatus employed in this research was not, of course, well adapted to registering the violent movements of a horse running at full speed, while it is in the study of precisely this pace that the method of instantaneous photography has led to the most brilliant results. The apparatus employed by Governor Stanford consisted of a battery of twenty-four cameras, arranged one foot apart at the side of a track along which the animal moved. By pressing against and breaking threads stretched across the track, the horse, in passing in front of each camera, closed an electric circuit and liberated the sliding shutter of the instrument. The plates were thus successively exposed at precisely the instant when the image of the animal was formed upon them. The intervals between the successive exposures varied with the speed of the animal, and the duration of each exposure was estimated by Mr. Muybridge, the photographer, at one five-thousandth of a second. The photographs thus obtained represent successive phases in the stride of walking, trotting, running, and leaping horses; while, for the sake of comparison, views of other animals—e. g., the dog, the deer, etc.—are introduced. For the benefit of artists, a large number of views were taken by means of five cameras exposed simultaneously, and directed toward the moving animal from different points.

The heliotype process has been employed in reproducing these photographs, and the volume before us contains such a wealth of illustrations that it may best be described as an atlas of plates with an explanatory text. The literary portion of the work is from the pen of Dr. Stillman, of San Francisco, who has added to the value of the volume by introducing a number of colored lithographs illustrating the muscular anatomy of the horse, and serving to explain the exact mechanism of the movements revealed by the camera. An introductory chapter, in which the author, somewhat unnecessarily, takes occasion to express his disapproval of what he considers the atheistic tendencies of modern science, is followed by a discussion of the general and special anatomy of the horse. This extends over three chapters, in the course of which many special anatomical adaptations of the muscles and joints to the movements required of them are pointed out. The remainder of the work consists of a description of the various gaits, as analyzed by the camera.

The most striking and unexpected results have of course been obtained in the study of the fast gallop or run; for, in the case of the slower gaits, the eye is sufficiently well able to appreciate the successive phases of the movement. The motions of the running horse will be best understood if we consider, in the first place, some of the necessary conditions of quadrupedal locomotion. It is evident that a quadruped moving by successive leaps or bounds may use either the fore or the hind-legs to propel the body through the air. It is also clear that the pair of legs thus used for propulsion will, as the body rises into the air, be directed backward, and thus be in a position less favorable to receive the weight of the body when it again reaches the ground. The other pair of legs (i. e., those not used for propulsion) will therefore be the ones on which the animal will naturally alight, and for this purpose they must of course be extended forward. From this it follows that when an animal leaves the ground from the hind-legs he will fly through the air with the limbs extended before and behind, and land upon the fore-legs; while if he employs the fore-legs to launch him into the air, he will appear in his flight with the limbs drawn well under the body, and will alight upon the hind-legs. This theoretical considera-

tion is fully confirmed by the camera. The most perfect illustration of it is to be found on plates xviii. and xix., which represent the movements of the running hound. An examination of these figures shows that this animal moves, when at full speed, by a succession of bounds in which he leaves the ground twice in each stride. (The word stride is used by Dr. Stillman "to signify the distance passed over by one foot from the time it leaves the ground until it reaches it again.") In these two bounds the fore and hind-legs act alternately as the propelling power. In rising from the hind-legs, the animal flies through the air with limbs extended before and behind, and alights upon the fore-legs. Rebounding from the fore-legs, he is again launched through the air, but he now flies with the limbs drawn closely under the body, and on coming to the ground alights upon the hind-legs, from which he is again propelled upward to repeat the movement as described.

Now, there are obviously two ways in which a gait of this sort may be reduced to a single bound in each stride. Either the hind-legs may fail to react powerfully enough to lift the animal from the ground before the fore-legs are brought down, or the fore-legs may not propel the animal into the air before the hind-legs have reached the ground. In the first case, the run will be reduced to a single bound, in which the animal, springing from the fore-legs, flies through the air with the legs drawn under the body, and alights upon the hind-legs, while in the second case the run will also be reduced to a single bound, but the animal will now rise from the hind-legs, move through the air with limbs extended, and land upon the fore-legs. The camera shows conclusively that the first case is realized in the run of the horse, while the run of the deer affords an example of the second case. This difference between the running gaits of the horse and deer seems natural when we consider that a spring from the hind-legs is better adapted to carrying an animal over an obstacle, while a spring from the fore-legs serves better for attaining speed on level ground; and here it is interesting to notice that the horse, in leaping a hurdle, adopts for a moment the mode of locomotion of the deer. The necessity of slackening the pace in order to change the gait whenever an obstacle is to be passed, seems to explain why a horse that can outrun a deer on level ground is no match for him in the forest.

For the sake of simplicity, the run has thus far been described as if the two hind-feet, as well as the two fore-feet, acted simultaneously in propelling the body. It is evident, however, that, even when the motion is most rapid, the action of the two hind-feet is separated by a brief, and that of the fore-feet by a rather longer, interval of time. The movement of the running horse may, therefore, be thus described: The bound of the animal through the air is always made with the legs drawn under the body. On approaching the ground, one hind-leg is thrown as far forward as possible, and on this the whole weight of the body is received. Almost immediately afterward the other hind-foot is brought to the ground, to be followed after a short interval by the fore-foot diagonally opposite. Before this is effected, the hind-foot, on which the animal first landed, has been again lifted from the ground, so that for a time the weight is borne on a fore and hind-foot diagonally opposite to each other. Lastly, the other fore-foot is brought to the ground, and from this foot the animal is again launched into the air by the action of the powerful muscles which straighten the shoulder-joint. From this description, or, still better, from an examination of the plates, the inadequacy of the ordinary conception of the gallop is apparent. Worcester, for instance,

defines a gallop as a forward motion "by such leaps that the hind-legs rise before the fore-legs quite reach the ground." The camera has, however, as Dr. Stillman says, "been made to analyze all the paces, and none has been discovered that answers to this definition."

Many of the positions of the running horse, as revealed by the camera, are so unnatural and grotesque in their appearance that it is difficult to believe at first sight that the animal can really assume them. Particularly noticeable is the fact that the conventional position in which artists represent the running horse (viz., flying through the air with outstretched limbs) does not appear in any of the series of photographs; indeed, it is evident from the description of the run above given that it is a position which cannot possibly be assumed. On this text Dr. Stillman indulges in some rather severe criticism of artists generally, maintaining that the revelations of the camera must hereafter be their guides in depicting moving animals, and that pictures of running horses in the conventional position will "be relegated to the museums as examples of old masters, to illustrate the progressive stages in the development of art." He, however, admits, as an excuse for past errors on the part of artists, "that in the gallop the horse always moves his feet alternately, and to the same extent. At the limit of extension there is a change of direction given to them, and their image dwells longer upon the retina, and the impressions are more lasting than of the intermediate and more rapid movements, which the mind is unable to distinguish any more than the order in which they are made." Artists will probably regard this admission not only as an excuse, but as a justification of their course, and, continuing to draw the horse's legs in the position in which they are most distinctly visible, will persist in producing pictures which, though photographically incorrect, are artistically true. Inasmuch, however, as the eye always tends to see that which the mind knows to exist, and as optical illusions are less likely to deceive us when their true character has been discovered, it is very probable that the study of instantaneous photographs will gradually train the eye to recognize in the moving animal positions which the uneducated sense fails to detect. In this way a certain modification of our artistic conceptions may be produced, but the effect can hardly be so immediate or so revolutionary as Dr. Stillman seems to expect.

The mechanical execution of this work is entitled to great praise. The typography and the plates are excellent, but, owing to some strange carelessness, there is, in some cases, a want of correspondence between the letters on the plates and those referring to them in the text; and in one plate the letters are entirely omitted. This circumstance, together with an occasional obscurity of style, renders some of the descriptions of the muscles rather unintelligible to a reader not already possessed of some anatomical knowledge. Notwithstanding these defects, the work must be regarded as the most important recent contribution to our knowledge of animal mechanics; and it is to be hoped that the method, thus shown to be so effective in analyzing quadrupedal locomotion, will be applied to the study of the flight of birds and of the various movements of the human body. It is also very desirable that the method should be extended so as to secure a double series of views representing projections of the body upon two planes at right angles with each other; for in this way alone can the actual movements of the body in space be fully determined. The objection to the method is of course its expense, but, the first experiment having been so triumphantly successful, it is not too much to hope that other men of

wealth may be found ready to follow the example so well set by Governor Stanford, of California.

RECENT ENGLISH POETRY.

THERE is just now in England, as in America, a tendency to the production of long poems. Of seven recent English volumes now before us, five are elaborate dramatic or narrative compositions, chiefly in blank verse. What is the fascination of this attempt? The man who never in his life arrested the attention of readers by a poem of ten lines feels yet secure of holding them through five hundred pages. "Sir," said somebody to Dr. Johnson, "when you have talked with my brother for an hour or two, you will find him a very pleasant companion." "Sir," said Dr. Johnson, composedly, "I can wait." Each of these long-range poets hopes to win his readers to a similar endurance, and thus prove to these patient waiters that they are no losers. The very extent of his work seems to increase the chance of some profit to the consumer. Charles Lamb reports that his friend George Dyer bought a tedious epic on the faith that there must be something good in a poem of eight thousand lines; and there are certainly instances to justify such wild expectations. Horne's 'Orion,' the once famous "farthing epic," vindicated this hope, for it afforded the one fresh line—

" 'Tis always morning somewhere in the world."

Landor's 'Gebir' yielded out of its seven cantos the oft-quoted question,

"Is this the mighty ocean—is this all?"

Probably, if the truth were told, each bard feels that in the lottery of the muse he will win at least once. If he floats securely down to immortality, a single verse is spar enough to which to cling.

When we come to compare the recent long poems of English and American minor poets, we find that the English are more apt to be smooth and commonplace, while the American are more bold in theme and more original, not to say fantastic, in treatment. The mere fact that the American poems so often relate to one or the other of two very inscrutable subjects—theology and the American Indians—establishes at once a difference between them and their English compeers. The latter usually deal with historical or classical themes, and, as to treatment, they are further distinguished by being very seldom crazy, though they are often flat—which for critical purposes is worse. Perhaps it is that the academic English training still rules over these works; they often seem as smooth, as finished, and as monotonous as if they were so many lines of Greek or Latin poetry composed at Eton. With one exception, the poems before us are thus conventional in treatment; they are "content to dwell in decencies for ever," which, considering the fact that one of them is by Mr. Swinburne, may carry a sense of relief.

One is disposed to retract this last encomium, though, in view of a few pages of Swinburne's 'Mary Stuart: a Tragedy' (New York: R. Worthington)—pages in which the author turns his Scottish Queen into a foul-mouthed scold. But the prevailing fault of the poem is that, not merely in its allusions, but in its execution, it is utterly un-Swinburne-like. The exquisite beauty that marked 'Chastelard,' and that lent a charm to even its cloying descriptions and its quite unquestionable moral; those striking images, and those passionate thrills, and those delicious French and English songs that lay like pressed flowers among the pages—all these have disappeared and have left a monotonous masculine treatment, carrying with it a certain power, but no charm. It is evident that this poet, like certain painters, is to be re-

corded as having an earlier manner and a later manner; and it is to be hoped, for the sake of good morals, that his readers will never be tempted to wish him back in his unregenerate days.

Mr. Alfred Austin's 'Savonarola: a Tragedy' (London: Macmillan) is a good type of that genus of English poems which we began by describing. Mr. Austin is well known as a clever London journalist; the poem proves him a faithful student of history, and is worth to younger students half a dozen ordinary biographies of Savonarola. All the accessories, all the aspects of local coloring, are thoroughly brought in; one could pass a competitive examination upon the whole period after "getting up" this book only. Yet after all it is a text-book, and not a poem; the reader is never once thrilled or stirred or overjoyed. So far as the appeal to the imagination goes, a single page of 'Romola' outweighs it all. It may be very disadvantageously compared with 'Patrick Hamilton: a Tragedy of the Reformation in Scotland, 1528,' by T. P. Johnston (London and Edinburgh: Blackwood). The Scottish poet has greatly the best of it in freshness of theme; he has a hero of his own in Patrick Hamilton, the brave young pioneer of the Reformation in Scotland, whose name, as the preface tells us, stands first inscribed on the obelisk erected by St. Andrew's Bay, commemorating five brave men who there perished by fire for their faith. There is something really noble and touching in the development of Hamilton's character and fate in this little volume; and the book has that fresh flavor of external nature that is so often to be found in Scottish poetry. There are in it passages of great eloquence and profound feeling, such as the following, for instance:

"Sad, did death call us but to black despair—
To say farewell to earth, and sea, and sky,
And dear, familiar faces that we love;
No gleam of light beyond, nor any hope
Of a new heaven to come and a new earth.
Ye shining planets, that we ne'er should know
Our brothers in yon dwelling—never look
With nearer eyes upon the heart of things.
Still must I think that we shall know more yet,
And see more; that life moves to one great end—
Fulfillment, not frustration, is its goal." (P. 27.)

The little volume is adorned by one or two spirited etchings of Scottish and German scenes; and it closes with a short poem on "Columbus," which, although as good perhaps as Lowell's or Rogers's, is not good enough for its theme. The most striking subjects for art seem commonly to fail of eliciting art; perhaps because they discourage the artist.

'Dorothy: a Country Story in Elegiac Verse' (Boston: Roberts) is intended to be a departure from the recognized English type, and undoubtedly succeeds in being such. It is a protest against aestheticism so vehement that it almost makes aestheticism attractive; it seems almost better to walk down Piccadilly with a poppy or a lily than to devote two hundred pages of "elegiac" verse, and then a dozen pages of indignant prose, to prove that English girls who perform farm-labor have hands like rusty iron. The poem opens with such agreeable freshness, it seems to smack so well of the soil, that it is provoking to have it develop into such a mannerism. It is not pleasant to have one's kindly sympathies all subordinated to what English people would call a *fad*—a whim, namely, a crotchet of the author's mind. His Dorothy soon loses all her simplicity, for she is the exponent of a theory, and must hold up her rough hands obtrusively on every page. In America, where white women rarely do farm-work, and black women have that happy Ethiopian velvetiness of cuticle that saves their hands, even in the roughest labor, from the rusty-iron similitude, the poem loses most of its moral; and in spite of the occasional whiffs of fresh air in the book, we turn back with pleasure to the far more artistic

way in which Clough treated his Scottish peasant scenes in the 'Tober-na-Vuolich.' After all, to create a work of art, one must write without a hobby. The author of this poem is understood to be Mr. A. J. Munby, previously known by a pretty little poem called "Doris," where there is also a shepherdess, who is quite of the conventional description and has not the rough hands; unless perhaps the line—

"She touched my shoulder with fearful finger"—be an amusing premonition of them.

A bit of rough-cast like 'Dorothy' is at any rate a good preparation for an essentially ideal work like 'Pygmalion,' by Thomas Woolner (London: Macmillan). The poet is undoubtedly the well-known sculptor of that name, who was associated with Rossetti in the early pre-Raphaelite movement, and now takes up the lyre just as his friend has laid it down. Here we have something of the Keats flavor, and which even fulfils in a degree the modest ideal after which Keats sighed, as appears by his early letters. "I have heard Hunt say, and may be asked, 'Why endeavor after a long poem?' To which I should answer: 'Do not the lovers of poetry like to have a little region to wander in, where they may pick and choose, . . . which may be food for a week's stroll in the summer?'" This is what 'Pygmalion' certainly offers, and an attractive little region it is, with no great heights or depths, to be sure, but with many bosky by-ways for the summer stroll. The treatment of the legend is not wholly new, for the solution is simply that Pygmalion weds his model; but this easy rendering is set about with so many statuesque maidens and heroic youths as to seem very Greek and satisfying. The author is best when he is most himself; but there is in the ninth book a strange slipping aside into Browningsisms, such as—

"Roundness remarked it was not well to rail
Too boldly at the Best; scoffs might by chance
Bounce to their ears; they might think well to shift
Their purchases, and other purses fill;
A change too horrible! Let well alone!" (P. 132.)

This reads like an intentional parody; but the general tone of the book is even and sustained, though rising too much into a tone of realistic tragedy before the end. Its art-maxims are good, and even its political philosophy, as in lines like these (spoken by the hero to his friend, who is for suppressing all civil commotions in soldier fashion):

"But steel, O friend! will scarce suppress
A rising tide, or backward push the sun
Because, forsooth, his beams too fiercely burn!
Against the tide we must protect our shores
By driven piles, and stones in sloping walls,
And quays of solid strength. Then tides become
The servants of our greatness, bearing ships
Exultingly to conquest, or, in peace,
Enriching us by gathered merchandise.
We must not throw sharp sand against the wind.
No; we must strive to guide, not stay, this growth."
(P. 89.)

Of shorter poems, we should certainly mention those of Mr. Francis Bennoch, 'Poems, Lyrics, Songs, and Sonnets' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). This volume is the authorized American edition of the works of one better known as the faithful friend of Hawthorne than through any present or probable renown of his verses; and his preface is perhaps the most interesting part of the book. He gives here the history of his poetic life, from the time when, as he says:

"As the son of a Scottish farmer, it was my delight, if not my duty, to assist the shepherd and servants for a long night in a terrible storm, the object being to keep the sheep on the windward side of the fold, lest, if left on the leeward side for shelter, they should be smothered in the drift and lost."

This little bit of prose description is more graphic and speaks more to the imagination than any of the poems in this thick volume; and it reminds us, for the thousandth time, how often

men's unconscious work is their best. Of Hawthorne Mr. Bennoch says, with pardonable self-consciousness: "My house was as his own home, and to me more than to any living man was disclosed the inner working of his marvellous genius." The book has a portrait of Mr. Bennoch, and the American edition is inscribed to the memory of Hawthorne and of Fields.

Mrs. Pfeiffer, author of 'Under the Aspens: Lyrical and Dramatic' (London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.), is not the lady who carried that name to all parts of the world as a traveller, thirty years ago; her portrait at the beginning of the book would make that charge an anachronism. But she has carried her literary wanderings into many domains, and has published five previous volumes, all duly advertised, in English fashion, at the end of this volume, with copious puffs from the newspapers, including some kind words from Longfellow, Lowell, and Holmes. Poets are so apt to be generous to their younger sisters of the lyre, that these compliments must not be too closely construed. All that we can honestly say is, that Mrs. Pfeiffer seems a worthy follower in the school of Mrs. Hemans and Mrs. Norton—with feelings as facile and verse as flowing as theirs, but with less of melody than the one and less of hearty human feeling than the other. In the quality of vigor, for some reason or other, our American "poetesses" seem just now to take the lead; nor do they all suffer, as Mrs. Pfeiffer suffers, from too easy a fluency of honeyed words. Their number, too, is steadily increasing and their work improving, whereas Jean Ingelow and Christina Rossetti seem to have no spiritual successors of like promise.

THE WAR ON THE PACIFIC.

Histoire de la Guerre du Pacifique. Par Diego Barras Arana. 2 vols. Paris: J. Dumaine. 1882.

The book before us is, we believe, the only complete history yet published of the war between Chili and Peru. Several reports of a technical, naval character were made by the officers of the United States squadron on the South Pacific Coast concerning the naval actions of the war, and they were made public about two years since. Lieut. Mason, who was then serving in the same squadron, has also contributed two papers on the war to the *United Service Magazine*. With these exceptions, we believe, the only accounts that have hitherto been made public are those which have been given in the current news of the daily papers. Señor Arana's history is from the Chilean standpoint, and it was not to be expected that it should be free from national prejudice; but it is clearly written, is free from bombast, is accompanied with a great number of maps which are in every way admirable, and is worthy of careful study.

Even after making all due allowance for partiality, it is evident from this book that the Chileans have gained their great victory over the Peruvians because they were the superior people: superior in intelligence, in industry, and in political stability. In discussing at length the causes of the war and the relative conditions of Chili, Peru, and Bolivia, numerous citations are made from the works of German, French, and English travellers and consuls in support of this claim to superiority; but no one of them is so convincing as the bare fact that, while her rivals have had constant revolutions, in Chili there has been no revolution in the past fifty years. It is only a minority of the governments of the world that can say as much. In Chili there were but four Presidents from 1831 to 1871, each being reelected for a second term of five years; from 1871 to 1881 there were two Presidents, reelection being prohibited. Every one of these men succeeded

to his office with an unquestioned title. Among the many causes which have contributed to Chilean sobriety and industry, probably none have been more potent than that mentioned by Mr. Rumbold, for many years British Minister Resident at Santiago—viz., "the almost complete absence of those accidental sources of wealth which Providence has lavished so abundantly on some of the neighboring states, and the consequent necessity of resorting to agricultural labor, which is quickly rewarded by a generous soil." As one result of this difference between the habits of a mining and an agricultural community, we find that at the beginning of the war Peru had a debt of \$213,000,000 (\$78 per capita), while Chili owed but \$50,000,000 (\$25 per capita).

The war found its origin, as is well known, in a dispute concerning boundary lines, complicated and made prominent by the discovery of the valuable nitrates. When the South American republics achieved their independence, it was agreed that their boundaries should be the same as those which had existed when they were provinces of Spain. This principle of their public law was known as the *uti possidetis* of 1810, that being the last year in which Spain had exercised unquestioned jurisdiction. It was supposed that this principle would afford an easy settlement of all boundary questions, but in fact it led to endless disputes on account of the vagueness of definition of the provinces. One of these disputes was in regard to the boundary between Chili and Bolivia in the desert of Atacama. Chili claimed, and until 1842 it was not disputed, that her territory extended to the twenty-third parallel of latitude. The Chileans, however, having discovered not only copper mines, but guano and saltpetre in this desert, Bolivia claimed that Chilean territory extended no further than the twenty-fourth parallel. During the fourteen years prior to 1879 the dispute continued without intermission, and more than once reached the verge of war. It would appear that the Chilean capital already invested in the disputed territory made Chili reluctant to proceed to extremities in support of her claims. In 1866 she entered into a treaty recognizing the twenty-fourth parallel as the boundary, but stipulating that the territory between the twenty-third and twenty-fifth degrees should be a sort of joint property, the revenues of which should be divided between the two countries. No portion of this revenue was ever received by Chili. In 1874 another treaty was made, in which all the concessions were on the side of Chili, who renounced all claim to revenues due under the treaty of 1866 and all joint ownership of territory, on condition only that during the space of twenty-five years no increase should be made in export duties or other contributions levied on Chilean capital and subjects engaged in the desert of Atacama. In 1878 the Government of the day in Bolivia repudiated the acts and treaties of its predecessors, and levied a new export duty on the nitrates, and when the Chilean company demurred to paying it, the Bolivian Government ordered its property (valued at \$6,000,000) to be sold at auction. On the day fixed for the sale (February 14, 1879) 500 Chilean soldiers landed at Antofagasta to prevent it, and war was begun.

In all these proceedings Peru had openly taken no part, although it was suspected that she was secretly advising Bolivia in her course. Peru had succeeded, by a series of decrees of a most oppressive nature, in confiscating the Chilean nitrate property within her own province of Tarapaca, but had committed no overt act of hostility. When the war broke out, however, between Chili and Bolivia, it was discovered that a secret treaty of offensive and defensive alliance had existed for nearly six years between Peru

and Bolivia. This treaty was avowed by Peru, whereupon Chili forthwith declared war, on April 6, 1879.

A war between two countries having each a seacoast of 1,500 miles and an impassable range of mountains distant but 100 miles from the coast, and separated from it by sandy deserts where even water must be carried by an army—such a war must necessarily be of a peculiar and exceptional character. The base of operations and the means of transportation must always be by the sea, and for this the command of the sea is an indispensable prerequisite. The operations of the Chilians showed a very clear conception of these conditions, and during the first six months of the war their efforts were confined to the organization of their army and to a struggle for the naval supremacy. The Peruvians had undoubtedly the stronger navy; it consisted of four ironclads, two wooden corvettes, and a dozen smaller vessels—the entire armament being sixty-six guns. The ironclads were a frigate (*Independencia*), mounting twenty-two guns; a turreted ram (*Huascar*), with five guns; and two American monitors. The Chilean navy contained two ironclads, two wooden corvettes, and six smaller vessels, the number of guns being forty-four. The ironclads were English-built frigates (*Blanco Encalada* and *Almirante Cochrane*), mounting six guns each. The fighting strength of Peru was therefore about double that of Chili. In the first six months of the war this relative strength was exactly reversed, in two decisive battles, besides the ordinary skirmishes incident to the blockade. In the first of these battles, which took place off Iquique on May 21, the Peruvians had their two principal ironclads, and the Chilians two wooden vessels of less than 1,000 tons each. One of these vessels was sunk, and the greater part of her crew destroyed by the Peruvians, but the other, while being pursued by the *Independencia*, ran over a rocky shoal on which the larger vessel struck, and was completely lost. The second battle occurred on October 8, near Cape Angamos. It was between the *Huascar* and the *Cochrane*, assisted at the close of the action by the *Blanco*. In this battle, which lasted an hour and a half, Admiral Grau, commanding the *Huascar*, and sixty men of his crew were killed, and his vessel was captured. The result of these two battles left the Peruvians with no ironclads except the two monitors, which could not be trusted at sea without convoys, and the Chilians with three powerful ironclads, which were soon placed in excellent order. The control of the sea being thus secured, the invasion of Peru was at once begun.

The allied army of Peru and Bolivia, numbering about 20,000 men, then occupied the southern provinces of Peru, the principal seaports of which are Iquique, Pisagua, and Arica. The Chilians determined to divide the allies by striking their line in the centre at Pisagua; and a force of about 10,000 men of the army organized at Antofagasta was carried in transports and effected a landing at Pisagua on November 2. Then they penetrated to the interior and fought a battle at Dolores, in which the allies were defeated, and the Bolivians dispersed into the mountains. A week later another battle was fought with the Peruvians at Tarapaca, in which neither side could claim a victory, but which was followed by the hasty retreat of the Peruvians to the north. The result of this short campaign, in which the Chilians lost about 1,000 men, was to place the entire province of Tarapaca in their hands. It was followed by revolutions in Peru and Bolivia, and the instalment of Pierola as Peruvian Dictator.

Early in the year 1880 a new campaign was projected. The allies had a force of about 10,000

men at Tacna, and it was determined to land an army on the north of them, so as to cut off all retreat to Peru and force a decisive battle. The Chilean army, numbering about 14,000 men, was reëmbarked, landed about sixty miles north of Tacna, and, after some preliminary skirmishes, marched across the desert against the allies. A very severe battle was fought at Tacna on May 26, in which the Chilians lost one-fourth, and the allies three-fourths, of their numbers. The Chilians then turned to the neighboring town of Arica, which they carried in open assault on June 7, the greater part of the defenders losing their lives.

The first two campaigns had therefore given Chili the undisputed possession of the entire seacoast as far as the eighteenth parallel; had permanently dispersed the Bolivians, and inflicted a loss of over 10,000 men on the Peruvians; had destroyed one, and captured two, of the enemy's vessels; and had blockaded his principal port of Callao. Nothing now remained but to attack the enemy's capital. This, however, required a reorganization and an increase of their army; and while this was in progress two important events took place. In September an expedition was fitted out, under Admiral Lynch, comprising 2,600 men, including cavalry and artillery; they were embarked on two transports, escorted by two vessels of war, and during eight weeks this force roved up and down the entire coast of Peru, landing here and there to levy contributions of over \$150,000 in hard money, destroying a vast amount of property, and capturing from a Panama steamer \$7,000,000 of paper money on its way to Peru, with which the Chilians afterward paid a large portion of their expenses. In October the neutral governments offered their good offices for peace, and a conference took place on board the United States flagship in the bay of Arica. The Chilians offered the same terms which they now propose—viz., the cession of Tarapaca and Atacama, the payment of an indemnity of \$20,000,000, and the occupation of Tacna and Arica until the indemnity was paid. The terms were rejected, and the war went on.

The expedition against Lima was organized as promptly as possible, and in the latter part of December the Chilean army of 26,500 men was disembarked near that place. Two severe battles were fought at Chorillos and Miraflores, on January 13 and 15, 1881, in which the Peruvians were defeated and dispersed, with a loss of more than half their force. The Chilians entered Lima on January 18, Pierola taking refuge in the mountains, and a provisional government being formed under Calderon.

With these events Señor Arana's history ends. It shows plainly that Chili has fairly achieved her conquest by means of serious work against people whose chief reliance seems to have been upon proclamations and threats, and who have wasted their strength in internal commotions at a time when every effort was needed to repel a foreign enemy. What terms policy and prudence, as well as her own sacrifices, require Chili to dictate to her conquered foes, it is for her to determine. There was little of novelty or interest in the military operations: the distances and the difficulties of the country were great and the armies were small. The Peruvian army at Lima is described by Lieut. Mason as worse than "the worst militia division in the worst militia days in the most peaceable part of our country." The Chilean army was composed of better material, and was fairly organized and equipped, but doubtless was far below the standard of regular troops in Europe or of our own volunteers of 1863-65. It was almost wholly raised during the progress of the war. The naval operations were interesting as testing the powers of the smaller class of ironclads, but the

character of the officers and men on both sides was not such as to warrant any conclusions applicable to the navies of more highly organized powers.

Familiar Allusions: A Handbook of Miscellaneous Information. Begun by William A. Wheeler. Completed and edited by Charles G. Wheeler. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1882.

Words, Facts, and Phrases: A Dictionary of Curious, Quaint, and Out-of-the-Way Matter. By Eliezer Edwards. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

'FAMILIAR ALLUSIONS,' of which the title has not been very happily chosen, though it might be hard to find a better, is the second posthumous work of the industrious author of the 'Dictionary of the Noted Names of Fiction.' His 'Who Wrote It?' had a very definite aim and scope. The present dictionary deals liberally with more or less famous places, streets, inns, churches, and other buildings, pictures, clubs, ships, trees, natural curiosities, etc., etc. A random selection will best show the range of it: Brook Farm, Charter Oak, Coliseum (Rome and Boston), Crepuscolo (Michael Angelo's statue), Ehrenbreitstein, Elgin Marbles, Five Points, Great Eastern, Great Peter (bell, at Exeter and York), Kremlin, Lear (West's), Leicester Square, Liber Studiorum, Mammoth Cave, Massachusetts Avenue (Washington), Mermaid Tavern, Merry Mount, Meta Sudans, Niagara (Church's), Père-la-Chaise, Piazzas (in great number), St. John Lateran and a very convenient lot of "Saints," Tarpeian Rock, Table Rock, Thames Embankment, Washington (a number of titles), and so forth. A large proportion of these have pertinent literary quotations appended to them.

As will be seen, the editor's intent to supply information which cannot be found in the common dictionary, or often in any dictionary, has been carried out within the limits which he more or less precisely set himself. It would be too much to expect entire consistency or perfect proportion. Telegraph Hill in San Francisco is unquestionably a much finer thing in nature than Murray Hill, New York; but as a "familiar allusion" (now, to be sure, in its decline) the latter outranks the former, and yet goes unnoticed, while room is found even for the Terrace in Central Park. Beacon Hill is recognized, and so is Beacon Street, but without any hint of the social significance of one-half the familiar allusions to this quarter of Boston. Hotels come within the editor's scheme, but the old, familiar Astor House is neglected; Delmonico's we find, but not Parker's. The Boston Somerset Club is not now so widely known or spoken of as its recent rival, St. Botolph's—a name which occurs in connection with the celebrated English church. Battles are sometimes in order—witness Cold Harbor and Five Forks. But where is Bull Run, to mention no others? Among the great streets of the world we miss, to match the Unter den Linden and the Max-Joseph-Platz, the Ring-Strasse of Vienna. An exception to the rule that names appropriate to the gazetteer, such as names of cities, are avoided, might have been made in favor of Canossa, for the sake of Bismarck's familiar allusion.

An unusual concession is made to consultants of this dictionary by such an alphabetical arrangement as Albert Dürer, Beatrice Cenci, Benjamin West, Death of Wolfe, Madame Tussaud (with cross-references from Dürer, Cenci, West, Wolfe, and Tussaud, respectively), Arsenal of Venice (no cross-reference), etc.; yet Bellini, Giovanni—not Giovanni Bellini. Running through the alphabet, we note also Alte Markt for Alt-Markt; Beatrice

Cenci—no allusion to the fact that the so-called portrait is neither by Guido nor, probably, of her (see the *Nation*, vol. xxx., 387); Bed of Justice—French *parlement* is mistranslated "parliament" in the modern sense (*cf.* Parliament House); Coppet "now belongs to Mme. de Staël's son-in-law, the Duc de Broglie," whereas this Broglie died in 1870, nor did Coppet ever belong to him; Élysée—no mention of its being the official residence of the Presidents of the Republic; Fernay (*sic*) "was built by Voltaire," but such was not the case; Hollenthal; Iron Crown—said to be still in Vienna; Jarvis Gallery; Kaiserstuhl—mistranslated "Caesar's Seat"; Königgrätz-Strasse for Königgrätzer; Palais Bourbon—cross-reference to Palais du Corps Législatif, whereas the old name, which had been in disuse from 1852 to 1870, was restored in 1871; Palais Royal "is now used as a royal residence"; Parc aux Cerfs—innocently and literally described as "a park or preserve at Versailles, France"; Porta Westphalica—in "the mountain range called the Wiehen- [for Weser-] gebirge"; Quirinal, since 1870 the residence of the royal family, is called "the palace of the Pope"; Spielberg—"now a prison," but no longer so; Star and Garter—"an old tavern in Pall Mall," illustrated by a quotation from Thackeray having reference to the Star and Garter at Richmond; Tell's Chapel—with full credence in the Tell myth. As will have been remarked, many of these errors show that the late Mr. Wheeler's occupation or failing strength, or both, prevented him from giving any attention to this work after 1870—a fact which the present editor has not duly kept in mind. 'Familiar Allusions' is sufficiently trustworthy, however, to make it a decided acquisition among our minor books of reference, and may be easily improved in a second edition.

We shall not pay Mr. Edwards's dictionary the compliment of so minute an examination. It is in effect a scrap-book of notes and queries, and, indeed, under Newspapers in America, the entire article consists of a labelled extract from the London *Notes and Queries*. The province of Worcester and Webster is freely invaded—*e. g.*, Epilogue, Epithet, Optimist, etc.; not seldom Mr. Wheeler's lines are crossed—*e. g.*, Colosseum, Covent Garden, Seven Dials; Americanisms are recorded—*e. g.*, Sling and Smart Chance (it should be stated that this compilation is a foreign one)—and no discoverable principle of inclusion or exclusion is observed. Still, this work, too, would have its uses if it could reasonably be depended on, but authorities are rarely given, or are not of the best. In etymologies, particularly, Mr. Edwards is both weak and reckless. He denies that *couple* can be used of two objects not yoked or bound together; says, under Embowel, that disembowel means the same thing, "notwithstanding its negative prefix," as if *dis-* had only a negative function; makes *mammoth* "probably a corruption of Behemoth," when the most that can be said is that it comes to us by way of the Russian and Tatar; and follows an obsolete and palpably absurd explanation (Trench's) of the *mid-* in mid-wife. We cannot think it desirable that such medleys as this of 'Words, Facts, and Phrases,' even if better done, should be multiplied.

Opium-Smoking. By H. H. Kane, M.D. New York: Putnam's. 1882. 18mo.

OPIMUM-EATING is an old and considerably-diffused habit in this country. Opium-smoking, on the other hand, is a novelty of very recent introduction; but the vice, or the accomplishment, is represented as rapidly spreading. The statistics upon this point are curiously

definite. In the little book before us, the person is named who is reputed to have been the first American opium-smoker, "a sporting character named Clendennyn; this was in California, in 1868. The second, induced by the first, smoked in 1871. The practice spread rapidly until 1875, at which time the authorities, finding that many women and young girls, as also young men of respectable family, were induced to visit the dens, where they were ruined morally and otherwise, a city ordinance was passed forbidding the practice, under penalty of a heavy fine or imprisonment. Many arrests were made, and the punishment was prompt and thorough." The practice, however, spread eastward like an epidemic. In Virginia City, Nevada, it appeared among Americans in 1876, and was soon made a penitentiary offence. Had it not been for this heroic treatment, writes a local physician, "I am satisfied that the habit would have extended into the higher classes." Truckee, Carson, Reno, and other towns along the Pacific Railroad quickly fell into line. During the same year Americans in Chicago, St. Louis, and New Orleans began to smoke opium; and the first "opium-joint" or "smoking-den" for American customers was opened early in 1877.

It need not be said that the Chinese in our large cities have long had their opium-houses; Dr. Kane refers to what he calls a "carelessly-written and highly-colored description" of the Chinese dens in New York, published in *Scribner's Monthly* for July, 1880. "Joints" for the newly-developed American opium-smoker now exist not only in the Chinese quarter (Mott Street), but also in several up-town quarters. One of them, it seems, is kept by American women. This account of the spread of the practice is confirmed by the increasing importation of the drug in the particular form of smoking-opium. Of this (not a pound of which is used for medicine), 53,189 pounds were consumed in the United States in the fiscal year 1876, and 77,196 pounds in 1880, under a duty of \$6 per pound; the values for the respective years being \$577,288 and \$773,796. As the Chinese population has remained nearly stationary since 1876, this increase is attributable to American smokers of opium. These are now estimated at 6,000 or more, and their average individual consumption at 100 grains per day.

This quantity seems enormous; but the fact is that to produce a given degree of narcotism the opium-smoker's dose must be several times greater than the opium-eater's. The contact of the narcotized smoke (when breathed into the lungs) with the absorbing pulmonary tissues is brief, and much of the narcotic principle is carried away with the expired smoke, while the "residual air" of the lungs forms an obstacle to the complete interpenetration of the tissues. Some 33 per cent. of the opium, again, is converted into an ash which is rich in morphia, six grains of it, administered hypodermically, being enough to paralyze a rabbit. The average consumption of the Chinese smoker is estimated by Sir Rutherford Alcock at one mace, or sixty grains, daily. The number of opium-smokers in China has been the subject of careful inquiry, but with greatly differing conclusions. It is probably from 3,000,000 to 6,000,000—one or two per cent., that is to say, of a population that exceeds 300,000,000. Inspector-General Hart, of Shanghai, says: "There is a deeply-rooted conviction in the Chinese mind that opium does unutterable harm to the country." There is a saying among the Chinese to this effect: "During the opium-war the English gave us balls of iron, and after the war balls of opium." In 1869, Bishop Shereshvsky was driven out of the capital of Honan province by a mob which shouted: "You burned our palace; you killed our Emperor; you

sell poison to the people; and now you come to teach us virtue!"

Dr. Kane's summary of the effects of opium-smoking contrasts sharply in some points with the more familiar phenomena presented by the opium-eater and the victim of alcoholism. On the one hand, the opium-smoker suffers the most, both financially and morally: a great part of his time is spent at the "joint," where it seems a certain placid good-fellowship prevails; but his mind becomes lethargic, and both business and family cares are soon abandoned, while the cost of the large doses required is very considerable. No habit tends more surely to the destruction of female virtue, the drug acting, until tolerance of its effects is established, as an aphrodisiac. On the other hand, the opium-smoker is not so completely unfitted for work as the drunkard, and organic lesions rarely occur, though the constitutional disturbances are considerable; he is not violent, nor does he disgrace himself in public, and the opium-smoking habit can be cured with comparative painlessness and rapidity. The treatment consists in the use of capsicum, digitalis, and tincture of cannabis indica. Dr. Kane experimented upon himself at some length, having purchased a complete smoker's "lay out" or equipment, and his account of the etiology of opium-smoking, though brief, is an addition to our knowledge of the subject.

Money-Making for Ladies. By Ella Rodman Church. New York: Harper & Bros.

THIS book is not worth the handsome dress the publishers have given it. It is a silly little book, but unfortunately its power to do harm is in inverse proportion to its merit. It repeats the well-known catalogue of employments for women, and actually the only new suggestion in the list is the netting of silk hammocks for dolls. Such loose statements as the following prove its worthlessness as a practical guide: "Straw-berries have been sold the first of April at five collars a quart." This year they were plentiful at a dollar. "Copying for lawyers" is "very dirty, tiresome work, and poorly paid. Three cents for every hundred words is an exceptional rate, as it is oftener less." On the contrary, six cents is no more than the average, and eight cents is not an uncommon price for choice work. But the book goes from bad to worse, when advice is in question. "Within the last few years, when so many non-toilers have been compelled to consider more or less the subject of money-making, the discovery has been very generally made that literary work is the most agreeable and remunerative of the various occupations suitable for a lady." "Fiction is always a wide field for woman. It requires less time, less study, and less money." "So little outlay is required for literary work—pen, ink, and paper, and a few postage-stamps constituting the capital." In such nonsense are the seeds of unlimited mischief. It can only lead to wasted time, disappointed hope, and, at best or at worst, to gratified vanity in the dubious success adding to the pile of trash from the cheap press.

Our gravest objection, however, is against the whole tone and motive of the book. There is not, there cannot be, any money-making for ladies in any distinctive sense. Work is work, of all kinds, of all people, and the laborer is worthy of his hire. Any good worker of high degree would scorn the presumption that her work differed from Bridget's because she herself was a lady. So illogical is much of the talk on this subject that the same breath that insists there shall be no difference between the work of men and women will blandly assert, as in this book, that such and such "is quite out of the question for a lady," or "teaching is one of the few

means of money-making in which a lady may openly engage without compromising her social standing." This brings us to the motive of the book—not an implied one, but most frankly stated. The distinction is not drawn between women and ladies, but between persons who devote themselves to a profession or trade thoroughly and perseveringly, and those who catch up anything which can be quickly learned and lightly used for the earning of money. The money—and here is the evil of the book—is wanted for finery and for pleasure. The introduction says: "What shall Isolte of the white hands do? Her case is undoubtedly hard—she is totally destitute of a new silk-dress, she means to purchase Christmas presents, and various other comforts and belongings of civilized life." Here is the beginning of "an account of actual experience to encourage the uninitiated": "Miss G— was a pretty, attractive girl, not at all accustomed to roughing it; but she found herself all at once most unpleasantly scant of money, and with an inconvenient fondness for the velvet and roses of life. Being enterprising, and having no guardians to restrain her," etc., etc.—on to her success as a book-agent.

We submit that any work from such motives not only "compromises social standing," but lowers the moral nature. The scale may be a very long one, and Isolte may be at the head of it; but lower down are the crowds of girls who flock to the shops and work-rooms of the cities from the very same motives of love of dress and dainties; and beneath, there are yet deeper, unspoken depths.

Studies in English History. By James Gairdner, editor of 'The Parton Letters,' and James Spedding, editor of 'Letters and Life of Lord Bacon.' Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1881. 8vo, pp. 334.

THIS volume, edited by Mr. Gairdner, contains two articles by the late Mr. Spedding, which, shortly before his death, he had agreed to publish in a volume of joint essays. Growing directly out of his studies upon Lord Bacon, and being distinctly of an historical character, they had not been included in the volume of 'Essays, Literary, Political, and Philosophical.' These two papers are the longest in the volume. The longest, of seventy pages, is the "Review of the evidence respecting the conduct of James I. in the case of Sir Thomas Overbury." *Causes célèbres* always form fascinating reading, from the element of mystery that attaches to them, and the ingenuity and intellectual grasp displayed in their investigation; and the murder of Sir Thomas Overbury has cast almost as dark a shadow upon the character of James I. as that of Darnley upon the character of his mother. Mr. Spedding's paper is devoted to examining the relation of James to this case in the light of certain newly-discovered evidence. He remarks (p. 177) that the evidence does not affect the case against the Earl of Somerset, which at the time "was hunted out with the greatest diligence, studied and sifted with the greatest care, and set forth with the greatest skill and clearness"; nor is it "likely that any new evidence will be discovered by which the aspect of his case will be materially altered. Not so with regard to the charges against the King—charges not only not sifted by judicial process at the time, but not made or thought of till long after the time when any sifting was possible." The case against the King consists, first, in the fact that Somerset's trial came just at the time that Villiers was rising to the position of favorite, so that the King has been suspected of "seeking a pretext to get rid of his old favorite"; and, secondly, in a threat made by Somerset, that he would divulge some

secret discreditable to the King, which has been supposed to be the cause of the pardon extended to Somerset and his wife after conviction. The new evidence—part of it discovered some years ago, but "the true bearing of which upon these questions does not appear to have been understood"—is reviewed and examined by Mr. Spedding in a very lucid manner; and he appears to be wholly justified in a conclusion favorable to the King. The correspondence examined in this paper witnesses, not to a cooling of affection on the King's part before the Overbury affair, but to an affection "painfully alive, passionately loyal, bitterly resenting the inadequacy of the affection with which it is requited, and earnestly desiring to be restored to its former condition" (p. 187). And for the other and more damaging charge, "there is not a single movement, from the beginning to the end, such as you would have expected from him had he been acting under a guilty consciousness that he was in Somerset's power" (p. 235)—"if you suppose him guilty, it is impossible to explain the facts."

Mr. Spedding's other paper is entitled "Negotiations with Spain in the fifteenth century—Katharine of Arragon's first marriage," to which Mr. Gairdner's paper upon "Katharine of Arragon's second marriage" is a sort of sequel. Both papers originally appeared in *Fraser's Magazine*. The twelve years of the negotiations described by Mr. Spedding (from 1489 to 1502) have all the interest of a game for high stakes between two accomplished gamblers, in which Henry fairly held his own against the most astute King in Christendom. The events described in Mr. Gairdner's article possess more human interest, which is centred about the poor girl left a widow in a strange land, neglected alike by her father—who no doubt "would have been happy . . . if Katharine could have been relieved without any sacrifice on his own part"—and her father-in-law, who nevertheless showed a certain compassion for her deserted situation. Of Henry's conscientious scruples in the matter, Mr. Gairdner says: "It was no high question of what was best and noblest, suggested by a delicate moral sense which refused to take counsel with personal desire. It was the scruple of a conscience that regarded nothing but legality, . . . the conscience of a statesman of the age of Machiavelli, who thought even heaven and hell depended on the construction of a code of criminal law, and was quite as ready to cheat his Creator as his fellow-creature, by doing the shabbiest act that would not be visited with damnation." "Altogether," he says, "the negotiations on the subject do not leave a very agreeable impression of diplomacy in the days of Henry VII."

Mr. Gairdner has five other papers in the volume. Two are upon the "Lollards," the republication of articles in the *Fortnightly Review* upon "Bible Study in the Fifteenth Century," but considerably altered, as having expressed sentiments which he no longer holds, being "only too much in harmony with the sceptical spirit of the age." This is followed by an interesting paper, also bearing upon Lollardy, "On the Historical Element in Shakespeare's *Falstaff*." That the character of *Falstaff* had some connection with the Lollard martyr, Sir John Oldcastle, has been generally admitted; the paper in question undertakes to show that the general in the French wars of Henry VI., Sir John Fastolf, also formed an element in the tradition, and that he too was a Lollard. He sums up, at the end, by saying that "the *Falstaff* of Shakespeare, much as it undoubtedly owed to the rich imagination and incomparable wit of the dramatist, was an embodiment of traditions respecting two distinct historical personages—traditions largely tinged with prejudice, but still not unworthy to be considered, as reflecting the opinions of the

age, and preserving, at the same time, some little details of genuine historic fact which, if they had not been stereotyped by genius, would by this time have perished irrecoverably" (p. 77).

The two closing papers are perhaps as interesting and important as any. That upon "The Divine Right of Kings" traces the origin of this doctrine, in the peculiar circumstances under which James I. ascended the throne of England, and its history down to the publication of Filmer's 'Patriarcha.' In connection with this, Filmer's other writings are briefly described—"it is not mere sagacity, but shrewd common sense that strikes one as their principal characteristic"—and his theory of civil government discussed. This theory, says Mr. Gairdner (p. 284), "it seems to me quite as easy unduly to depreciate as it proved possible to over-magnify it in the seventeenth century." The last article, "Sundays, Ancient and Modern," gives an interesting account of the way in which the Puritan observance of the Sabbath came into existence. Here we are told (p. 313):

"Though based on principles the most erroneous, the Puritan Sunday has been of undoubted service to us in the organization of our social life. Dull and cheerless as it was, and cruelly as its heavy discipline was maintained, it has been attended with an amount of good which has more than compensated the worst evils it has wrought. . . . The great boon of the Puritan Sunday has been a lesson of self-denying earnestness, which sprang from strong and well-defined convictions transmitted from father to son during the last two hundred years—a rich inheritance, which I trust we may yet preserve amid the growth of new ideas and the remodelling of opinions. . . . It will not do to imagine we are doing God service in putting down Sunday trains or fining Sunday haymakers. Let us diminish Sunday labor as much as possible; but for man's sake, not for God's."

Robert Hall. By the Rev. E. Paxton Hood. [Heroes of Christian History.] New York: A. C. Armstrong and Son. 1881.

"No adequate life of him has ever been written," writes the author of this latest attempt to set Robert Hall before the public, in the last chapter of his work. As he himself charitably supposes of Hall's other friends, he, too, may have done his best. But he must have had a poor conception of the proper function of a biographer when he sat down to execute one of the most ill-digested and imperfect biographies ever offered in such a form. The outlines of Mr. Hall's public life are barely indicated; hardly even a skeleton of him has been constructed; and there is little or no attempt to portray the living, breathing figure of the man, to trace the development of his inner, spiritual life, or to analyze its secret springs. Nearly one-half of the book is padding, in the shape of extracts from previous biographies or Hall's own works, out of all proportion to the limits of such a composition. And, in a volume of 192 pages, fifty pages are devoted to a consideration of Hall as a public speaker, as if that were his chief claim to public regard.

With an almost ludicrous simplicity, the author shows how possible it is for sectarian prejudice so to warp the judgment as completely to invert the true relations of things. "Hall was probably the greatest sacred orator of all time." He even disputes the palm with Demosthenes himself; as the ancient world produced but one Demosthenes, so the modern world has produced but one Hall, compared with whom "all other of our sacred speakers seem good common-sense talkers, or speakers through whose thin veil of artificial rhetoric and clumsy climax the mechanical preparation may be too obviously and painfully seen." From such a point of view he stands far above Bossuet and even Massillon; and Shakespeare, "our great modern German master,

Goethe," and Thomas Carlyle are all employed as foils to set off Hall's greatness as an original thinker, possessed of "the mighty gift of the first-rate order of intelligences by which they draw out our own nature, and set forth in the light of our own knowledge that which had been in us all along." That Robert Hall was an heroic man, all will admit who know anything of his life of constant suffering; that he was a great preacher many even now will not dispute. But the interest of his works was mainly temporary: they do not possess much human and universal and permanent interest. Questions unknown to his age are now pressing for solution, and the whole mental attitude of the time has changed. It is, therefore, a gross caricature of Hall to speak of him in the fulsome and uncritical fashion of these pages.

The author has formed a juster estimate of his life and work; an estimate, however, which it would be impossible for any reader to arrive at independently, from a perusal of the present compilation:

"Hall is a study. He was a Baptist minister, but he does not fit very nicely into the groove of any ecclesiastical sect. He had an objection to unions, and was altogether too magnanimously free to permit himself to be the mere mouth-piece of any human notions. In Protestantism he was unsound. He was so strong a Protestant that he was opposed to the claim of the Papal hierarchy for political place and privilege. Like John Milton, Andrew Marvell, and many other great Englishmen warmly attached to civil and religious liberty, he dreaded the power of Rome as inimical to both; but he was hostile to priestism in every form, whether found in the gown of Calvin, the cassock of Horsley, or beneath the cope of the Papacy.

"He bowed before the majesty of his powers the most exalted men of his time who heard him, and perhaps by his mingled enchantments of logic and eloquence hushed captious and thoughtless scepticism; but, after every eulogy, no sermon, even of Robert Hall's, was equal to his own personal character, and the majesty and dignity of his greatest words were not equal to his brave endurance of sharpest suffering, the sublime faith which sustained him through severest trials, and the extraordinary unconsciousness which, while acclamations on every hand acknowledged him as the prince of preachers, led him to regard himself as one of the most ordinary children of men." (Pp. 192, 151.)

Schule und Heer. Von Aug. Guhl. ["Deutsche Zeit- und Streit-Fragen," Nos. 159, 160.] Berlin. 1881.

THE German school system, admirable as it appears to foreigners, gives rise to much dissatisfaction at home. There is a general complaint of half culture and superficial knowledge, and much difference of opinion as to the remedy. Writers distinguished in various walks of life, as well as professional pedagogues, have taken part in the discussion, which is but a renewal of the old controversy between classical and non-classical studies. The special form which it now takes is a direct attack on the real-schools. These schools were originally intended for that section of the middle class of the population which did not aspire to enter one of the learned professions or the higher branches of the public service, and therefore was not obliged to pass through a university, but which, nevertheless, did aim at a higher degree of culture than the elementary schools could offer. The Government, which in Germany regulates everything relating to education, occupied itself with these schools as far back as 1832, and in 1859 promulgated a system of instruction and examination which fixed the status of the real-schools permanently. As now constituted, they have, like the gymnasiums, six classes, of which the highest is called "Prima," and the lowest "Sexta." The entire course covers nine years, each of the three lower classes occupying one year, and each of the three upper classes two years, the

age of entrance being from nine to ten years, and of graduation from eighteen to nineteen. There are also real-schools of the second rank, which omit the highest class. The course of studies differs from that of the gymnasiums in omitting Greek, giving fewer hours to Latin and more hours to mathematics and the natural sciences, and adding English.

These schools have been largely patronized, and have owed much of their patronage to an important privilege enjoyed by their pupils in common with those of the gymnasiums—the privilege, namely, of serving in the army for one year as volunteers, in place of the compulsory three years' service of the masses of the population. This privilege can be acquired either by passing an examination or (without an examination) by producing a certificate from a gymnasium or a real-school of having attended for six years and having passed all the school examinations for promotion. The natural consequence is, that every parent who can afford it sends his boys to the real-school, so as to have their term of military service curtailed, and as soon as this point is gained, many of the boys leave school and go into business; in other words, their schooling stops at the age of sixteen instead of eighteen, and remains fragmentary. This practice accounts for the circumstance that while in the gymnasiums about one-fourth of those who enter complete the course, in the real-schools the proportion is reduced to one-tenth. Even this is the artificial product of a fresh privilege acquired in 1870 (as stated in No. 860 of the *Nation*)—the admission of graduates of the real-schools to the universities.

It is this state of things that is deplored and sought to be remedied. The advocates of the classical training, who are strong in official and professional circles, accuse the real-schools of being neither the one thing nor the other; of not preparing their pupils for practical life any more than for the university; of sending out a mass of boys who are half educated, filled with crude ideas, and puffed up with self-conceit. These writers would remodel the real-schools by dropping Latin and cutting down the course so that it should reach its termination at the age of sixteen, the scholars entering at six.

Of course the question has two sides. The teachers of the real-schools, a large and intelligent body of men, naturally resist any attempt to reduce them to a lower plane. They admit the need of reform, and—what may seem singular—in a convention held in 1874, they adopted resolutions demanding, among other things, that no one should be admitted to the privilege of one year's military service without passing a special examination.

The present pamphlet, although written by an officer of the German army, and avowedly treating the subject from a military point of view, takes its stand with the extreme wing of the classical school. The author agrees with Karl Hillebrand in dividing the German nation into three classes. Leaving the aristocracy out of the question, he places in the first class all those whose labors constitute the mental activity and leadership of the state, including in this category not only the liberal professions, but also merchants, manufacturers, professors, artists, architects, army officers, writers, etc.; all of these should pursue the full course of studies of a gymnasium, supplemented, if necessary, by the university or some other appropriate professional or technical school. The second class includes the lower grade of the middle class, such as shopkeepers, mechanics, innkeepers, subordinate employees in the public service, etc.; for this class there should be middle-schools, covering a period of ten years, from the age of six to that of sixteen, as already referred to

above; and those who completed the course should be admitted to the privilege of one year's military service instead of three. Finally, the third class embraces day-laborers and the masses of the population generally, and for them the popular or primary schools as now constituted answer every purpose.

Of course this is but a bald abstract of Colonel Guhl's argument, but it sufficiently reveals the one striking point that he aims at—viz., that every member of the educated class should be required to possess a collegiate education; for it is unnecessary to remark that a German gymnasium is on a level, to put it moderately, with an American college. The same view is advocated by Karl Hillebrand in an article already alluded to. The latter writer, who was for a number of years examiner or inspector of the French lycées, says that in France every large merchant sends his sons to college, not only to graduate, but in many cases even to study law afterward; and it has not been found that young men so educated are inferior as merchants to those who, from their sixteenth to their nineteenth year, copy letters, sweep the office, and run of errands.

Some of Hillebrand's suggestions for reform, though not strictly cognate to the subject, are of such general interest that it may be permissible to mention them here. First, he would reduce the hours of labor in and out of school to eight. At present the school-hours in a gymnasium are from 7 to 11 A.M. in summer, and 8 to 12 in winter, and from 2 to 4 P.M. all the year; besides which, two to three hours' study at home is necessary. To accomplish the curtailment, he would abolish some studies and shorten others. And here comes the strangest part of his scheme, and the one that will excite the most opposition. The study of German, the native language of the scholars, he would restrict to grammar and orthography; and he would abolish the study of literature, on the ground that it only supplies unformed minds with ready-made judgments, and instead of stimulating the study of great authors, produces a disinclination to read them. He is also much averse to any scientific teaching. His most practical suggestion is to drop all teaching of religion to boys over fourteen years of age. In view of the well known attitude of indifferentism to religion of the educated classes in Germany, it may well seem that the time devoted to religious instruction is a sheer waste. The main point, however, is here again, that Hillebrand insists that the pure classical training has such virtue in rendering the mind vigorous and flexible that any one who pursues it up to his nineteenth year can then undertake any pursuit or any study he pleases, and will soon outstrip all competitors who have had any other sort of training.

Manuel d'Archéologie grecque. Par Maxime Collignon. 368 pp., 141 engravings.

La Mosaïque. Par Gerspach. 272 pp., 68 engravings.

Histoire de la Peinture hollandaise. Par Henry Havard. 288 pp., 92 engravings.

Précis d'Anatomie à l'usage des artistes. Par Mathias Duval. 336 pp., 77 engravings. All 8vo. Paris: A. Quantin; New York: J. W. Bouton. 1881.

WITH the above four treatises begins a series of school-books in art which promises to number, in time, not less than a hundred volumes, covering an immense variety of subjects, both general and special. The prospectus of the series observes that

"The youth of our schools, who devote ten years to the humanities, search the courses in history in vain for exact treatises touching upon the wonders of antique art or upon the

movement of the Renaissance. In the graduate's memory as he enters upon life there may remain a few names, more or less high-sounding, to which he attaches no clear idea either of the men or of their works. Later, when he is drawn into debates upon artistic matters, he will sadly recall the relative ignorance in which his classical studies left him. It will be too late to repair this gap in his education, and time will fail him to attack the great works which exist, but which are too complete or too special. . . . In view of this lack, action in other countries has not been wanting. Among our neighbors there is not a special school without its course in the history of art, and all this instruction, given by a multitude of experienced teachers, is encouraged by a host of publications of every sort. . . . In justice, it should be said that the Government has not neglected to begin a similar movement among us. . . . But an essential condition for all this new education is lacking; *the book*. Masters and pupils are unanimous in demanding it."

To meet the want in France thus lucidly set forth, M. Havard has undertaken, under the patronage of the Department of Arts, the editing of this extensive "library." There is to be a volume on the general history of art: one each upon painting, sculpture, architecture, ornamentation, engraving, and music; and special treatises upon French, Italian, Spanish, and English painting, Italian and French sculpture, ancient, Italian, and Gothic architecture; Etruscan, Roman, and Oriental archaeology; Byzantine art, ceramics, tapestry, wood-carving, construction, jewelry, glass, ivories, bronzes, stuffs, costume, etc. Such an encyclopædic range of topics would, perhaps, inspire only distrust were it not for the competent writers to whom many of these works have been already assigned, for the distinct promise of a pervading "spirit of method and clearness, shorn of the trappings of useless erudition," and especially for the conspicuous excellence of the four volumes just published. The superficial attractiveness of these tastefully printed and covered octavos, their compactness and vividness of statement, their wise illustration, and their reasonable price (3.50 fr.) will combine to make them exceedingly popular. We could wish that some enterprising American house would arrange for the translation and publication, under competent editorial superintendence, of all or most of these manuals. We are sure that they would be widely used and appreciated.

The volume on Greek archaeology, for instance, in the hands of an intelligent instructor or an inquiring student cannot fail to give a charming and correct idea of the indispensable outlines of that fertile field of historical study. We know of no other work which treats the subject with anything like the fairness, the clearness, the restrained enthusiasm, or the fulness of this. Questions which are still unsettled are stated simply and candidly. The vital point of every topic is seized and emphasized as such. The real attractiveness of the subject in hand is not spoiled for the reader by being continually insisted upon; it is simply implied and assumed, so that his curiosity is continually kept alive. The several divisions of architecture, sculpture, modelling in terra-cotta, vase-painting, coins and gems, bronzes and ornaments, are all taken up and set in that due relation to each other which it has taken archaeologists so long to learn to appreciate. To the whole is prefixed a singularly good statement of the origins of Greek art. However the special student may regard the author's cautious statements upon disputed points, or may regret that greater space was not devoted to his specialty, he must grant that the general method and spirit of the book are excellent. We should think that for use in this country, or even in France, an extension of the lists of authorities given at the head of each chapter was desirable, if not necessary, to give the student a clew to the sources of the matter

summarized in the text. The author is not infallible, as his bad blunder on p. 65, about the *module*, shows.

The '*Anatomie artistique*' is an abridgment of lectures given for the last ten years to the students of the *École des Beaux-Arts*, and embodies those topics which experience and consultation with practical artists have proved to be important and interesting. It is supplied with an index of the parts of the body which are described. The '*Peinture hollandaise*' is of course both generally historical and biographical. The extent of its range appears from the long list of artists to whom reference is made. The history of '*La Mosaïque*' begins with the works mentioned in classical literature, and comes down, century by century, to the present time. It has indexes both of places and of artists.

The Rose. By H. B. Ellwanger. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

THIS capital little book is the work of a writer who has a thorough knowledge of his subject, and knows how to convey it to others in sound and clear English. The amateur rose-grower will find here, in small space, a great amount of safe information and useful suggestion. On the vexed question of the classification of roses, Mr. Ellwanger takes very sensible views. The grouping found in the catalogues of nurserymen is becoming too complex for the average brain, and, as it has only very partially a scientific basis, it is high time that the complicated divisions and subdivisions with which many rosarians delight to perplex mankind should be reduced to something like simplicity. The chapter on typical roses is excellent. The description of varieties in the latter part of the volume, though in some cases the writer's experience does not answer to ours, is, as a whole, the best we know, and we advise all who are making a collection of roses to take counsel of it.

The Classics for the Million: Being an Epitome, in English, of the Works of the Principal Greek and Latin Authors. By Henry Grey. Second edition, revised and enlarged. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1881. 12mo, pp. 348.

OF the numerous popular books prepared of late years to introduce the classical authors to non-classical readers, Mr. Grey's '*Classics for the Million*' is a fair example, with some merits of its own. It consists for the most part of epitomes of the several works of the authors, sometimes with examples; and this work—if it is worth doing at all, for general readers—is done very well. There is not much satisfaction or real profit in reading an outline of a story or a drama; but some readers have a fancy for this, and for these this book may be recommended. Other merits it does not aim at. It makes no pretence to literary criticism or history, and the lives of the authors are exceedingly brief. The date of death is given (how, by the way, is it known that Homer died B.C. 850, Herodotus B.C. 413, and Tacitus A.D. 118?), but that of birth regularly omitted. In the list of translators in the appendix, the names of Bryant and Cowper are omitted.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, C. C. *The Bible: a Scientific Revelation*. James Fott. 75 cents.
Björnson, B. *The Fisher-Maiden*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.
Brockhaus's *Conversations-Lexikon*. 13th ed. Parts 14-15. L. W. Schmidt.
Clement, Clara Erskine. *Charlotte Cushman*. [American Actor Series.] Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
D'Anvers, N. *An Elementary History of Art: Architecture—Sculpture—Painting—Music*. 2d ed. Scribner & Welford.
Dorothea. [Round-Robin Series.] Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.

Hallstone, H. *Homer's Iliad*, Book vi. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

Harrington, P. J. *The Graphic Arts: a Treatise on the Varieties of Drawing, Painting, and Engraving*. Boston: Roberts Bros. \$2.

Hawley, F. B. *Capital and Population: a Study of the Economic Effects of their Relations to Each Other*. D. Appleton & Co.

Hay, Mary Cecil. *Dorothy's Venture*. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.

Ingersoll, F. *Birds-Nesting: a Handbook of Instruction*. Salem, Mass.: George Bates.

Jackson, Lady. *The Old Régime: Courts, Salons, and Theatres*. Henry Holt & Co. \$2.25.

Jerram, C. S. *The Helena of Euripides*. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

Keary, C. F. *Outlines of Primitive Belief among the Indo-European Races*. Charles Scribner's Sons. \$2.50.

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Fine Arts.

THE TWO OIL-COLOR EXHIBITIONS.—II.

BEFORE commenting in detail upon a few of the works in these exhibitions, it will be well to premise that we assume the criterion of truth to nature to be a fundamental one. All painting, save that of a purely abstract and decorative kind, represents natural objects more or less fully, and is to be judged according to its veracity of representation—which is the true basis for all higher principles of design. Without this basis art inevitably wanders off into meaningless vagaries. But by truth to nature we do not mean exact imitation of physical facts, with which, as such, an artist has nothing whatever to do; we mean, rather, truth to visual impressions. It is a painter's business to know how things look, and to portray their appearances. We cannot attempt anything like a thorough review of either exhibition; we shall simply offer such remarks as suggest themselves on a few of the pictures in each. We will speak first of some of those in the Academy.

Mr. George Inness is represented here by two landscapes, Nos. 298 and 517. The first, called "*Under the Greenwood*," is one of this artist's most mannered works. Two beech (?) trunks, ungraceful in line and awkward in arrangement, occupy the middle of the canvas. Beyond them is a dead, blank mass of green paint—of that unnatural and unpleasant quality, in which something like Prussian-blue predominates, peculiar to Mr. Inness—which stands for a background of woodland. There is no characterization, hardly even a suggestion, of form or of parts in it, save one rigid, vertical tree-trunk without ramification. The masses are unrelated and scattered, the greens of one quality, and the execution the same for near and distant parts alike. Mr. Inness never gives us a decisive form, never a well-defined contour. Everything with him is softened, and is, as it were, melting away. His work lacks a firm basis of drawing. No. 517, "*A Winter Morning—Environs of Montclair, N. J.*," is of different, and more interesting,

character. It represents an expanse of characteristic American winter landscape, with patches of snow lying about here and there. It is not a graceful design; indeed, it cannot be called a design at all. It is a simple portrait of a passage of open pasture-ground and thin woodland, with a distant house or two of bald and staring American type, and some vaguely-drawn logs and stumps in the foreground. In broad effect it is, however, very true, with a look of open winter daylight. Mr. Inness frequently exaggerates his light and shade, but in this picture, and in others like it, he is temperate and exemplary.

Mr. Eastman Johnson has two portraits, Nos. 173 and 210. These are quiet and natural in conception, and are firmly and well drawn. But the execution is slight and sketchy, and wanting in solidity; and in the flesh there is an unpleasant and untrue quality of pink and purple, and a want of correspondence between the parts in light and the parts in shade. Mr. Johnson seems to have acquired a settled manner, which he employs for everything. In each subject that he treats he seems not to observe sufficiently what the actual visual conditions are, but rather to proceed in the same way, and with the same pallet, for everything. In Mr. Huntington's "Portrait of a Lady," No. 290, which occupies one of the best places on the line, there is a conventional rather than a true grace of pose and figure. The hand which falls from the arm of the chair is weakly sentimental in this regard. The color, too, is unnatural; it is conventional studio-color. In painting the lady's dress and the red cover of the chair, Mr. Huntington did not truly observe the plain facts of their relative values. Mr. John F. Weir exhibits a large painting, No. 267, "The Theological Faculty of Yale College," in which all the personages represented have precisely the same complexion and the same quality of gray hair. This sameness is remarkable, if it be true. The picture is unpleasantly dark, as if everything had been painted into a freshly laid ground of ivory-black. Gravity of key might, indeed, be suitably chosen for such a subject; but gravity of key does not necessitate the suffusing every part of a design with ivory-black. Mr. B. C. Porter's "Portrait of a Lady," No. 189, is, for the most part, a good and finished piece of painting. It is injured, however, by excessive use of black and brown in the shadows, and the points of highest light in the eyes are a little too sparkling, and those on the nose and forehead a little too much emphasized for quiet effect.

No. 82, by Mr. Elihu Vedder, "Waves off Pier Head," is an excellent piece of chiaroscuro; but the color is wanting in purity and variety, and the drawing of the waves is hard and lifeless. No. 181, "The Golden Net," by the same artist, is a somewhat elaborate work, but is too equally and even mechanically elaborated. The drapery is unpleasantly cut up, and is very ungraceful in fold. The color is monotonous and untrue—an unpleasant yellow-brown hue running through every part. No. 371, a portrait by Mr. J. Alden Weir, hangs where it cannot be fairly examined; but it appears to have excellent qualities, not unlike those which are characteristic of Velasquez. These are much injured, however, by excessively strong brown shadows on the nose and cheek. Mr. Vinton's portrait of Wendell Phillips, No. 380, has strong qualities, but it lacks refinement. Mr. Vinton catches the outside, obvious characteristics of his subject; but he seems to get little beyond these.

Mr. F. D. Millet's "Milkmaid," No. 463, is an admirably-drawn and natural figure of a young woman walking forward on a meadow foot-path, with a pail of milk in her hand. It is a good subject, conceived without affectation. Mr.

Millet is a plain realist; but he has not here done himself justice in all respects. The chiaroscuro of the picture is very untrue, and there is a want of decision and of significance in accessory parts which bespeaks insufficient acquaintance with the objects—weeds and grass—which the artist would fain represent. The figure is in shadow against a light sky, which, in nature, would make it tell as a decidedly dark mass; but Mr. Millet has not made it dark. A part of the arm which holds the pail falls against the slightly rosy lower sky, and is almost precisely of the same value and the same hue. This is both impossible and untrue. The picture has not the look of having been studied out of doors. The figure appears, rather, to have been painted from a model in the studio, and the landscape background to have been thrown in from memory without sufficient reference to the relation which would actually exist between the one and the other in point of chiaroscuro. There is a picture in the South gallery, No. 270, "Feeling the Edge," by Mr. E. M. Ward, which illustrates the true effect of a figure in shadow against open sky.

Mr. J. G. Brown's works this year are about the same in character as usual. Mr. Brown is a conscientious and faithful worker; but, apart from the interest which attaches to the incidents of street-boy life, and other commonplace subjects (in depicting which he is very entertaining and successful), there is little of essential excellence in his painting. He regards his subject with a view to some incident or story, rather than with a true painter's eye. As a painter, he dwells too much upon a common sort of realism, and not enough upon the beauty of the aspect of things. Take No. 413, "The Neighbors," for example. Two old ladies sit chatting together, and one of them wears a white kerchief about her neck and over her shoulders. A true painter would have felt the value of this white kerchief as a total mass, and would have retained its breadth through whatever modifications of its local color the expression of its folds and the influence of neighboring objects might have required. But Mr. Brown, in seeking to make its folds look real, has emphasized their markings too strongly, and thus has lost breadth and the relation of the whole drapery to other masses. The shadows in it are wrought with the same brown color that is used in the flesh and other parts.

Of works by others of the older Academicians there are few which call for special comment. Mr. J. F. Cropsey exhibits a large landscape, No. 69, "Lago Maggiore, Italy," which is highly conventional and false in color. The broken foreground of grass and earth is rendered with crude green and vivid orange hues, totally uninfluenced by the modifications which nature could not fail to exhibit under the conditions of light and air represented. A group of figures to the right of the composition are unfeeling and untrue in this crudeness of untempered paint.

Mr. Casilear exhibits a landscape of the same conventional type with which he long ago made us familiar. Mr. S. Coleman and Mr. A. D. Shattuck have largely lost what fresh integrity they showed formerly, and have adopted the prevailing French manner without having taken firm hold of the good qualities of French art. The case is much the same with the rest of that group of men who were the recognized leaders in our exhibitions a quarter of a century ago. There is one picture in the corridor, No. 664, "Study of Trap Rock," by J. Henry Hill, which contains more good painting than any other picture in the galleries. It represents a passage of rocky ravine, with light cascades leaping from ledge to ledge. The picture is quiet and true in all respects. Everything in it is perfectly and

felicitously characterized, yet it is broad and true in total effect. Such sincere and affectionate rendering of simple nature is the best outcome of all our artistic activities thus far.

On entering the gallery of the Society of American Artists one notices a pervading harmony of tone in all the pictures. This has been commented on as a sign of excellence unusual in exhibitions of American pictures. But such harmony as this is attained largely by a method of subduing all colors by a uniform tone of gray or brown. It is not the harmony of living and ever-varying color, which is attained by simple veracity as regards their mutual values. We want, in painting, the harmony which consists with nature's beauty and variety of color, not a uniform harmony of this conventional kind. No. 1, "Winter," by Mr. E. A. Abbey, is a remarkably good piece of drawing, and there is more in it of grace, in general pose and movement of the figure, than one often sees; but it is too slight and sloppy in execution to be considered as anything more than a sketch for effect. No. 8, "Autumn," by Mr. Edwin H. Blashfield, is also a gracefully posed, firmly drawn, and forcibly painted figure. No. 29, "Girl Reading," by Mr. William M. Chase, is one of those bizarre and ungraceful subjects of which we have already expressed our disapproval. There is some good chiaroscuro in this picture, but the execution is slovenly and meaningless in the extreme. The drawing of the gown of the figure, with its pattern, is quite beneath criticism from any point of view. In No. 33, "Portrait of a Lady," by Mr. Frank Duveneck, the head seems out of relation with the surrounding parts in point of chiaroscuro. It tells as a strong spot of light, while the remaining parts of the picture are not illuminated in a corresponding degree.

No. 42, "Evening—Lorette," and No. 43, "Priscilla Fauntleroy," are by Mr. George Fuller. Beyond a certain vague sweetness of expression, we cannot find much to admire in these pictures. The misty obscurity which enshrouds them is altogether untrue to any known effects of nature, save, possibly, those which occur in the densest of London fogs. The figures are bad in drawing, indeterminate in handling, and impure and monotonous in color. It seems as if the artist, in a state of but partial wakefulness, were vaguely striving to embody some half-forgotten dreams. Mr. A. Quartley's pictures, Nos. 79 and 80, while apparently aiming at true color-values, are frequently faulty in this respect. In No. 79 a distant steamer to the right hardly differs in quality or in density from one of the nearest dark objects in the picture. The same may be said of No. 114, "City of Dort," by Mr. J. H. Twachtman, in which some of the most distant objects are presented in strongest force. No. 120, "Portrait of a Lady," by Mr. J. Alden Weir, is a picture which, we think, possesses few of the qualities of good painting. The execution is unfeeling and painty in the highest degree. A heap of flowers (l) are laid on as with a brick-layer's trowel, and the result is simply a repulsive mass of thick paint. Nor can we detect greater merit in the two or three other pictures exhibited here by Mr. Weir. The bizarre in method seems to be his chief aim in them all, and we find few excellent qualities underlying it.

It is hardly necessary to extend our remarks. We have selected for comment a few of those pictures which seemed most to call for it. If we have pointed out more faults than good qualities, it is because we feel that such good qualities as exist are already widely and sufficiently appreciated, and that the right direction of public taste in the future calls urgently for clear showing of the dangerous tendencies which are so rapidly gaining ground in what is now called our new art movement.

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